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## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### INTELLECTUAL FREEDOM

IN THESE DAYS educational literature is full of comments on two sorts of attacks on education and the schools. The first of these attacks is that on freedom of teaching and freedom of learning. The press in general has been full of comments pro and con, and by this time the educators and scholars have taken pen in hand and are turning out speeches for the defense. One which struck me as particularly suggestive is a pamphlet, *"Academic Freedom" Opened My Eyes*, by William Kostka. This material was originally published in the "Roundup Magazine" section of the *Denver Post*, and reprints of it are now available from the author (1666 California Street, Denver, Colorado).

Kostka, a former managing editor of *Look* and former publicity director of the National Broadcasting Company, is now a member of a Denver advertising firm and president of another public relations firm. It is, how-

ever, in his role as an alumnus and trustee of Knox College that he has written the present booklet. In it he describes his failure for a time to understand academic freedom, apparently regarding it as a professional prerogative like wearing a hood and mortarboard or as a mere screen for subversive activity. Eventually he discovered that "academic freedom" is the same as "intellectual freedom" and that this latter freedom is clearly connected with our traditional freedoms of speech, press, and assembly. Hence the author and the trustees of Knox decided "to forget academic freedom" and to talk about "intellectual freedom."

In view of the fact that the author is a professional advertising man and an expert in the use of mass media of communication, we need not take too literally the autobiographical tone of the pamphlet. The arresting point is that an apologist for one college—and a professional of considerable sophisti-

cation—believes that this is the most effective way to present the argument and that, once academic freedom is related to intellectual freedom and this, in turn, is related to the fundamental freedoms guaranteed by the Constitution, then the battle is won. A good many of us, as other current writings on this topic make clear, are not certain the situation is so simple.

Certainly, some case can be made out for academic freedom as a professional privilege in the strict sense of the term. The executioner, the gynecologist, and the priest, for example, in their professional capacities can all do certain things which are not permitted to every citizen—acts which would expose even these professionals to severe legal penalties if they undertook to perform them as lay persons. With suitable safeguards, society does confer privileges on certain groups in order to get socially desirable jobs done. Thus, concerning one current public figure many persons say that, though they despise the man and his methods, they think he is doing a job that needs to be done. This is the essence of privilege. In the same fashion, it may be desirable to have a group of people who fearlessly examine all ideas regardless of how dangerous or how sacred they may be.

But privilege is always unpopular, as courtroom struggles over privileged communications, for example, make clear. Many of us, therefore, who believe in academic freedom would agree to abandon any claims to special privilege and to make academic freedom

merely a part of intellectual freedom—the kind of intellectual freedom guaranteed every citizen. If, then, teachers have any special interest in intellectual freedom or any special claim to it, this emphasis would rest merely on the fact that they are more intellectual in this sense: that freedom of thought is naturally most important to those whose job it is to think.

If, however, Kostka is right and if schools, colleges, and universities find themselves in their present situation merely because they have failed to make manifest the connections between academic freedom, intellectual freedom, and the constitutional freedoms, then we are in a bad way and do need a public relations expert to help us. But if so, a lot of us should be fired—but for incompetency, not subversion. In regard to other objectives, most of us who teach at the college level turn a sallow green whenever we examine studies of the college graduate, and any high-school teacher who has talked to a college professor has received blunt estimates of his general effectiveness. Possibly in regard to intellectual freedom we have been even more than usually ineffective and, despite our interest in the intellectual life, have failed to give students any just conception of the freedoms required to make it possible.

But many of us feel that the issue runs deeper than this. We feel that we will not preserve intellectual freedom merely by showing its relation to the constitutional freedoms, for it is actually the constitutional freedoms

that are involved in the current controversy. That Kostka stands somewhat outside the main stream of academic thought on these matters is evident from the series of nine articles in the October issue of *Educational Leadership* under the general title "Education for Liberty" and from the November issue of the *American Library Association Bulletin*, which is entitled "Intellectual Freedom Issue."

Perhaps the article most relevant to our present concerns is Leon Carnovsky's "Clear and Present Danger," reprinted in the latter magazine from the *Library Quarterly* of January, 1950. As Carnovsky points out, freedom is not an absolute, and freedom of speech is not an absolute freedom; "society itself imposes limits upon it, and it becomes the business of the courts to determine whether the limits have been transgressed in individual cases." In our tradition, the issue, since the Schenck case in 1919, has been stated in terms of Justice Holmes's doctrine of "clear and present danger." In the words of Justice Holmes:

The question in every case is whether the words used are used in such circumstances and are of such a nature as to create a clear and present danger that they will bring about the substantive evils that Congress has a right to prevent. It is a question of proximity and degree.

Some of those attacking our schools and colleges are undeniably motivated in very reprehensible ways. They have secured some measure of support because large sections of the general

public have apparently felt that there was a "clear and present danger." They fear something—Communist overthrow of the government, the atom bomb, or what have you—and in view of the danger, they believe that certain freedoms should be abridged. Therefore, statements about the tradition of academic freedom and citations of the constitutional freedoms as support of academic freedom seem to miss the point. People are afraid, and they see free schools and universities as one source of danger. As long as this is true, they will support attempts to limit the freedom of the schools.

In this situation, the schools' defense seems to involve two possible activities: they can prove to the general public that the schools are not a potential source of whatever dangers it fears; or they can reassure the public that these dangers are not so great—so "clear and present"—as it believes. Both these courses of action are more easily stated than carried out, partly because efforts along either line are not taken seriously or are regarded as merely more subversive activity.

My personal connection with my own university has been a very close and not too cloistered one during the past twenty-five years in which I have been a student and a faculty member. Repeated investigations by local, state, and national groups have merely confirmed what I knew quite well from personal experience: there is no subversion at the University of Chicago. This illustrates a suggestion made in several of the articles in the

*Educational Leadership* series: that the schools can help improve their position by bringing the public into the schools, by involving more citizens in the running of the schools, and by attempting to produce a better understanding of what the schools are trying to do. Then, by firsthand acquaintance, the public will realize that the schools are not a source of danger. Progress here will be slow, but at least this is work along the right lines.

To follow the second possible course—to work to convince the public that the danger is actually not so great as it appears—has several prerequisites. First, we must know what is feared. In our anxious age, to determine what is feared is not easy. Fear of foreign domination, fear of forced changes in our political and economic systems, fear of death in atomic explosions, and fear of Russia as a fairly tangible embodiment of the three preceding fears are obviously potential dangers of which the public is consciously apprehensive. But there are others of the same sort, and even the listing of these four does not touch the other fears we are less aware of or less willing to talk about. Second, if we know what is feared, we must convince people that they are wrong and that we are right when we say it is not dangerous. They are likely to say either that we are mistaken or that we are trying to lull them into a false sense of security. To convince them that we are honest and right, we must study and teach these “dangerous” things. Only by examining them can we and they assess the

danger. Yet this study and teaching is exactly what, in the opinion of some persons, it is too dangerous to do. How we and the general public work our way out of this vicious circle will determine the course which education will take in the next few years.

Insofar as part of the trouble is a general insecurity in which people project their personal apprehensions and frustrations upon national and international events, education is perhaps taking steps which will, in the long run, make for progress. As many of the current articles point out, if education can make people more secure and more rational, not only by what we teach them, but also by how we treat them, eventually we shall produce a citizenry which will fear the things that are to be feared and not fear the things that are not to be feared. In the short run, however, large sections of the public, rightly or wrongly, see dangers so alarming as to justify the limitation of our basic freedoms. Until the cause, real or fancied, of this fear is removed, educational institutions will have to struggle to remain free.

#### QUACKERY IN EDUCATION

THE SECOND SET of “attacks” has a much narrower target and is aimed at professional courses in education and departments of education generally. Albert Lynd’s *Quackery in the Public Schools* (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) and Arthur E. Bestor’s articles and his book *Educational Wastelands* (Urbana, Illinois: Univer-



sity of Illinois Press) are probably the best known in this group. Although this section of the December *School Review* included some comments on these attacks, I have as yet seen no extended reply to these books. The following paragraphs are not directed at either book but rather at the general situation in which the charges have been made and in which they will be answered.

To start with, we should not fear to be platitudinous and should pause long enough to be thankful that we live in a society where such charges (whether sound or unsound) can be made and answered. In our way of life the real limit on the activities of any group is imposed by aroused public opinion—not merely general public opinion, but also opinion within the group perpetrating the alleged malpractice. Certainly if Education (with a capital *E*) is as vicious as these authors appear to believe, they have a duty to sound the alarm to all who will listen.

Some educators have felt it a mistake to give space in educational journals to these charges. With this view I cannot agree. One might argue on the ground of sheer expediency that it is useful for any group to know the worst that others are saying about it. But more important is the fact that the best reform of any sort comes from within the group guilty of the alleged malfeasance. Its members can most quickly and effectively correct their errors. With the increase in the volume of printed matter, all of us find our-

selves, despite our best efforts, tending to be restricted in our reading to professional literature. Hence one can be sure of reaching an audience of doctors only through the medical journals, the chemists through the chemical journals, and so on. If charges against a profession are to be judged by the profession, editors of professional journals can hardly act as sole judges. I personally hope that the educational journals will continue to publicize attacks on Education, that the *Journal of the American Medical Association* will give a hearing to those who find fault with current medical practice in the United States, and that other professional journals will report attacks in their fields. This willingness to give publicity to what appear to a particular group to be false and irresponsible criticisms by its enemies may seem the role of fools or angels, not the part of smart professionals. To this view the only response seems to be that the angelic frequently appears foolish and that perhaps the theory and practice of democracy demand something of the angelic from man. Possibly it is the appeal to this side of man's nature that has given democracy the attractiveness which it seems to have.

Nonetheless, the critic should be careful. I do not refer here to those dangers inherent in careless brandishing of charges, perils so familiar to us from other spheres of public life at present: that the refutation always follows the charge by a long interval and frequently does not reach all the quarters where the charge penetrated,

that accusations have an interest and a news value which denials and rebuttals do not. In the present state of our national life, all these points are so familiar as to be hackneyed. They apply, however, in the educational controversy as well. So, for example, Lynd's charges of quackery, as emphasized in the title of his book, have received much greater attention than his acknowledgment of the need for some professional training for future teachers or his case for improving teachers' salaries.

The special danger is the tendency on all sides to believe that, in professional circles, critics are necessarily more responsible than critics in other areas because the baser motivations of personal publicity and political preferment are less strong than in public life. Intellectuals presumably look at things more rationally and more judiciously. The critics themselves become shriller because they believe their minds are keen and their hearts pure. Teachers and professors are used to anti-intellectualism, but they think it the vice either of "the masses" or of rabble-rousers and quacks. We forget all too easily how quickly we as intellectuals become anti-intellectual in matters on which the other man exercises his intellect. What he thinks is a fundamental law stated in precise scientific language can easily strike us as a platitude stated in an over-elaborate jargon designed merely to keep the uninitiated at bay. In any faculty club listen to the psychologist, for example, say what he thinks about the

field of economics; then listen to the economist express himself on the study of psychology.

Critics of education or Education run a special risk because they speak as experts in the field. Everyone is an expert on education, and the would-be specialist who devotes all his professional life to this field is at best allowed to be *primus inter pares*, first among his peers. Everyone is an expert because he has been to school himself and knows what's what. What was good for him and what he enjoyed will certainly be good and enjoyable for everyone else. Then there is the postgraduate work, so to speak, completed by parents. Theirs is no narrow view, limited by the confines of their personal experience. Their children are in school, and no one can tell them much about education. Then there is that final degree of expertness attained by those who teach. They actually participate in the educative process. If they don't know at first hand about education, who does? It is small wonder that the professional educator has a rough time since he tries to operate in a field already teeming with experts, who are only too willing to correct his egregious errors out of their abundant store of experience and insight. The moral of this tale is merely a gentle admonition to professors and ex-professors not to shoot from the hip on the easy assumption that they are the law's true embodiment, sent into the world to be the scourge of evildoers.

On the other side of the controversy, I hope that my colleagues in

Education are keeping the adrenalin out of their systems long enough to read judiciously the various charges which are being made. Maintaining an air of calm may be difficult. There will be a feeling, "This is where we came in," as we see the similarity of the present charges to others published fifteen or thirty years ago. Some of the accusations will seem grounded in ignorance or bias. Nonetheless, we owe it to ourselves and to the public to give them honest consideration.

Take, for example, the charges that professional courses in Education are often worthless or take too much of the future teacher's time. We need not pause here to consider the arguments concerning whether pre-professional training of some sort is necessary and desirable and whether it is proper that this requirement be enforced through legislation in all the states. For present purposes the important point is that such legislation now exists. We thus have a captive audience, and, notoriously, the producer for a captive audience easily becomes careless about the quality of his production. If competition is the life of trade, we are in the position of an industry operating behind a high tariff wall. Without having to agree that we are the monsters and frauds that Messrs. Lynd and Bestor would make us out to be, we can at least take a critical look at our own operations. It should not be beneath our dignity to ask ourselves whether we are slighting some necessary things, doing some unnecessary things, or being too long-winded or many-

coursed about some others. Insofar as we are in a privileged position, the doctrine of *noblesse oblige* applies.

These questions in regard to our pre-professional work become particularly pressing in the face of the national teacher shortage and our attempts to train teachers to fill the gaps. This problem has considerable local and personal interest because we at the University of Chicago are working on it and have worked on it for a good many years. Other institutions are undoubtedly facing similar situations. We all probably agree on the general ingredients in the proper program of teacher preparation.

The first of these is a good general education. We at Chicago believe in general education, and the constant reorganization of our program or parts of it is not a reflection of doubts about general education or of frustration and failure so much as a constant desire to improve what we are doing. With a basic belief in general education, we are still more convinced of its desirability in the preparation of teachers. To be the kind of person he should be and to be able to do the kind of thing he should do, the teacher should have a general education. Second, the student preparing to be a teacher should have an adequate specialized command of the subject or subjects he expects to teach. This statement is certainly never contradicted around a university, and in few other places either. Third, we agree that he should know something about the job of teaching. We even espouse the heresy

that knowledge of this kind is good even for college teachers. We offer special seminars and apprentice-teaching opportunities for doctoral candidates going into college as well as internships for those already endowed with the Ph.D. and with college jobs. To be sure, some of my colleagues hold that a new teacher needs to know only his subject and that in practical matters of teaching he can do no better than do to his students as he has been done to by us. But these men are great objectors to any theory of "learning by doing," and, if pressed, they sometimes admit they can hardly espouse the doctrine only in regard to teacher preparation. In short, if the question is only what general sorts of work should be included in teacher preparation, agreement is easy: general education, specialization, professional training.

The trouble begins when we start to parcel out the available time. In the past this problem was not too difficult. We at the University of Chicago believed that the Master's degree was the desirable minimum for the future teacher, and within that five-year program all three elements seemed to find their proper place and proportion if we used a little care. But the time and the money required for the future teacher to complete the Master's program have seemed to many school men something of a luxury in these days of teacher shortage. In attempting to do something to meet this emergency, we here have recently had one bit of help. The reorganization of

our regular Bachelor's degree requirements has saved some time for the student. Our colleagues responsible for general education and for specialized training have, through drastic pruning of each of these programs and through better articulation between them, produced a more economical A.B. program without, we hope, too much loss. But when the demands of professional training enter this already crowded scene (even the minimum for temporary emergency certification), the stage becomes full to bursting. We in Education cannot change the legislation, as is realized by our colleagues, who, having already, they feel, compressed their own programs too much, look enviously at the time we must take. If we cannot reduce it, we can at least be sure that we are using it to the best advantage. As educators (or "educationists," if you prefer), we should feel this same responsibility in less critical situations.

#### THE NEED TO LEARN

IN SOME of the controversies over the schools and modern school practices, it is not always clear whether the discussion is actually a debate about principles or whether there has merely been a misunderstanding. Where there is misunderstanding, it sometimes seems to be the fault of the educator. Of if "fault" is too strong a word, we should at least be more careful not to be misunderstood.

Familiar illustrations of this difficulty are the phrases "the child-centered curriculum" and its usual

contrary, "the subject-centered curriculum." I doubt whether all users of the term "child-centered" have intended to imply that subject matter is worthless, that the fund of human knowledge is no good to anyone, and that education should be compounded out of the successive whims of juvenile fancy. On the other hand, some educators (a decided minority, in my opinion, but nonetheless some) have meant just about that, or at least have talked as if they did. As a result, critics of the schools or of education are quick to assume that the phrase always stands for things they consider evil or foolish. True, as already suggested, critics should look first and shoot second, rather than the other way around, but we educators might well exercise a little caution in our use of words.

This point can be illustrated by two examples from many in the current literature. Since both are sound contributions in their way, they can serve to illustrate the point without any aspersions being cast on their intrinsic value. The first is an article in the October issue of the *High School Journal*, entitled "Does Subject Matter Contribute to General Education?" The author, Lindley J. Stiles, dean of the School of Education at the University of Texas, in his first paragraph, hastens to reassure any sensitive readers that it does. Hence we can assume that the question is purely rhetorical, intended merely to catch the potential reader's eye. But let us imagine that a national magazine were to run an

article entitled "Should We Overthrow the Government by Force?" Even if the article were written by a most reactionary politician, many readers might feel that such a title, if not actually subversive, was inciting to riot. It seems to raise possibilities which should not be entertained. We may believe, of course, that the inquiring mind ought to be prepared to question everything, and we may feel that only the atmosphere of these degenerate days makes us so wary of being accused of unpopular things by careless or oversensitive readers. Yet if we want to startle people, we must be prepared for their shocked responses. That an educator should even question the value of subject matter will seem to many people a crime only a little short of communism or atheism, or the question will strike them as one too foolish to raise.

The same sort of thought is conjured up by a large chart entitled "Child Growth and Development, Characteristics and Needs." This was originally prepared by the District of Columbia public schools and is now being distributed by the Arthur C. Crofts Publications, New London, Connecticut. The upper part of the chart is divided into vertical columns corresponding to various stages in the child's development. Then in each of these columns, statements are categorized under the rubrics, "Physical Growth and Development," "Characteristics," and "Needs." With the statements about the needs for sleep, social dancing, and improving per-



sonal appearance, few would quarrel, but the "conservative" critic and parent are likely to be disturbed. "Fine," they may say, "but where is education in all this? Doesn't my child need to know arithmetic, and spelling, and the rest?" Once more the authors do clarify their position. In the material at the bottom of the chart are listed some questions which knowledge of child development will help answer. To one of these, "Does the child-study program prescribe the content of the curriculum?" the answer is: "It does only to the extent that it justifies richness of content to meet the needs of the growing child. . . . The narrow view of education as consisting of only the three R's is not supported."

Some critics of modern education have apparently believed, or have sounded as if they did, that education should consist only of the three R's, but many more have merely insisted that the three R's should not get lost in the shuffle. Less cantankerous parents and observers have been glad to see the child's physical and emotional needs taken account of, provided that his mental needs were not slighted or denied. They did not demand a "disembodied intellect," but they did not want the schools to produce a "de-intellectualized body." They were willing to see the curriculum become child-centered just so long as this did not mean that the subjects which they considered valuable were tossed out the window. They were glad to have teachers conceive of their task as that of teaching children rather than teach-

ing subjects, provided teachers taught the children something and did not regard teaching merely as a pleasant, self-contained activity.

It is easy to get into the habit of overemphasizing something merely because we feel it usually gets too little emphasis or of overemphasizing one element merely because opponents tend to overemphasize its contrary. Often, this procedure is rhetorically effective for certain purposes with certain groups, but, like all rhetorical devices, this one may backfire. In a matter of such general concern as is education, we should be careful to say what we mean. If we color our statements slightly for the advantage of special effect, we should be sure that we have foreseen all the effects, including the disadvantageous.

#### GENERAL EDUCATION AND CORE CURRICULUM IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

GENERAL EDUCATION has been a topic receiving much attention at the collegiate level for the past ten or fifteen years. Perhaps because secondary education has always been more general than its collegiate counterpart, the phrase has been much less used in connection with secondary education. It is, consequently, interesting to note that the *High School Journal* will devote its 1953-54 volume to "General Education in the Secondary School." The first number (October, 1953) is entitled "Identifying the Problems," and it contains, among other articles, a selected bibliography

of general education. Subsequent issues will deal with "Social Understandings," "Role of Scientific Knowledge," "Health and Safety," "Life Enrichment," "Vocational and Family Life Education," and "Curriculum for General Education."

One form which general education has taken at the high-school level has been the core curriculum. Like most new movements (and in education movements retain the epithet "new" for the first twenty or thirty years of their existence), the core has sometimes been more talked about than understood. A few intrepid superintendents and principals have pushed the theory of "learning by doing" to the point of deciding that the best way for their staffs to learn about the core curriculum was to tell them that they were teaching one, beginning with the next school year. Other administrators have used milder forms of in-service training. But relatively little help has been available in the form of pre-service courses.

As Grace S. Wright points out in an article on "Core Curriculum Offerings for Teachers," appearing in *School Life* for October, 1953:

By and large, educators in teacher-preparing institutions have taken the view that they must prepare teachers for the kind of teaching opportunities that await them. While recognizing merits in the core program, some of them have voiced the feeling that they could do no more than help students to see its possibilities until there was a sufficient demand for core teachers to warrant a course or a program.

Continuing spread of the core program in

secondary schools, and acceptance of the core idea by a large number of teachers and administrators, now seem to merit a look at the extent to which the core concept has been incorporated into education courses.

Miss Wright's analysis was based on the summer catalogues which happened to be available to the United States Office of Education from eighty-five universities and teachers' colleges. Although, as she points out, these eighty-five institutions do not constitute a representative sample, they include most of the larger institutions among the 329 universities and teachers' colleges in the United States. Consequently, the totals reported are probably closer to the actual totals than the 25 per cent coverage of the sample would suggest.

The summary of the findings is as follows:

1. Thirty institutions offered a total of 46 courses in core or emphasized the core program in their catalogue announcements.
2. These 30 institutions were located in 21 states and the District of Columbia, all but 5 of the states being east of the Mississippi River.
3. Seventeen of these institutions offered a total of 21 courses and workshops in the core curriculum.
4. Approximately 500 students were enrolled in summer-session work in the 21 core courses.
5. Of the 21 courses, 13 were for graduate students only; 7 were offered for the first time this summer; 14 are or will be regular education offerings.

The article lists the courses offered last summer and the institutions giving them. It also lists Office of Education publications relating to the core

curriculum, many of which were noted in these pages as they appeared.

#### INTERNATIONAL CRITICISM OF TEXTBOOKS

HAVING used this space in the January, 1953, issue of the *School Review* to express a somewhat jaundiced view of much of the international exchange of persons, I am happy now to speak enthusiastically about another sort of exchange, the international exchange and criticism of textbooks. As Lewis M. Latané reports in "French and German Teachers Exchange Textbooks" appearing in the *American Teacher* for November, 1953, French and German teachers' unions (*Fédération de l'Education Nationale* and *Gewerkschaft Erziehung und Wissenschaft*) agreed upon a joint study of public school textbooks to determine the extent to which they serve mutual Franco-German understanding and the development of an international spirit.

A few of the comments made by each country on the other's books are worth quoting because they apply equally well to much American material about these two countries. So, for example,

Technical realizations and industrial progress do not receive adequate treatment in German textbooks dealing with France. Social history, the labor movement, and many important currents of French thought and intellectual life are neglected. . . .

The German commission thought that the French textbooks dealing with Germany tended to overemphasize a certain senti-

mentality in traditional German culture. Greater attention should be paid to modern German literature.

These international shoes certainly fit the feet of much of our own material about Germany and France. It is no wonder many Americans had difficulty in comprehending the Third Reich in view of the fact that their picture of Germans shows blond maidens dancing around the Christmas tree, singing *Stille Nacht* and munching on *Baumkuchen*. Nor will we ever understand France so long as we see the Frenchman as a kind of M. Perichon with a waxed mustache and a frock coat, who picnics every fine Sunday in the Bois de Boulogne. Not that many blond Germans do not sing *Stille Nacht* nor that seemingly innumerable Frenchmen do not picnic in the Bois de Boulogne. That is hardly the point. Americans who have traveled in Europe (particularly those of us from Chicago) know how hard it is to dispel the European belief that as the American goes about his national pursuit of "making a fast buck," usually through the use of gadgets, he must dodge a hail of tommy-gun slugs fired by rival mobsters.

Nations do not necessarily see themselves more clearly than others see them. Insightful analyses made by foreigners of many countries are famous, and certainly the outsider can see what the native is blind to merely because the native takes these things for granted. But the fame of these foreign analyses should not lead us to ignore their relative rarity. Travelers

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and compilers of textbooks, regardless of their knowledge and intentions, often produce rather queer products. Sometimes their search for the different and the colorful leads them astray, but it is an undeniable fact that to preserve one's stereotyped ideas about a foreign culture is even easier than to preserve them about one's own. A more balanced picture, which does not necessarily involve whitewashing, can often be achieved by letting the native help with his own portrait.

Unfortunately, progress in this mutual criticism of textbooks will undoubtedly be slow. In our own land such proceedings would be looked upon in some quarters as a serious threat to national sovereignty, and other nations also probably have their "principles" which warrant ridiculous or libelous views of Americans and things American. The millennium is not yet here. Since cause-and-effect relations are rather complex, one cannot be certain in which direction the causal force moves; either this kind of mutual criticism of school textbooks will do much to promote international good will, or the practice will become common only after international peace is a certainty.

#### BOOKS AT MID-CENTURY

ONE of the new books sent to the *School Review* might seem a most unlikely item for workers in secondary education. I confess, however, that I found it one of the most interesting in all the piles of material scanned in preparation of these com-

ments. On the hunch that many of our readers will find it equally rewarding, I take this opportunity of calling their attention to it. The book in question is *Librarians, Scholars, and Booksellers at Mid-Century* edited by Pierce Butler (University of Chicago Press, 1953. \$3.75). That it seems likely to interest non-librarians is especially astonishing in view of the fact that it publishes the papers presented before the Sixteenth Annual Conference of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. Usually there is no more arid reading than the published proceedings of conferences. This one is different.

Even a mildly bookish person will, I think, enjoy this book about books in our age, with its accounts of the book market, the problems of the librarian swimming frantically to stay above the flood of printed matter, and the trials of the scholar trying to get his hands on something he knows exists somewhere. Not that the facts related will be startlingly new to many of us, but they have been nicely put together by people talking to the point. As a result, almost anyone who buys books or who gets them from libraries (or tries to) will find at least two or three of these ten papers fascinating reading.

Even the harried schoolman who believes he cannot afford the time to read for pleasure can have a sound excuse for spending an hour or two with this book. Insofar as schools teach or should teach the ability to use books or the love of books—and

worse objectives than these two are sometimes suggested for education—this slim volume gives a clear picture of what is happening to books and bookmen in our time. Teachers of reading, of literature, and of similar subjects will get sharp insight into the kind of world in which our students will have to utilize the skills and appreciations which we try to foster in them concerning books.

#### "DEPTH" READING

ANOTHER ITEM worth perusal by those interested in reading is "Depth' Reading" by Naomi B. Gill in the *English Journal* for September, 1953. It speaks to a matter which greatly concerns many of us who work with reading at all educational levels. The title is actually a slight misnomer; that it is understandable and appropriate is perhaps in itself the most arresting commentary on the general situation. The reading in question is "deep" only in that it gets below the surface of the most obvious meaning or tenor of a piece of writing. It is profound only in that it is not superficial.

Miss Gill recounts most engagingly the experiences of her class in Palo Alto, California, Senior High School in the reading of contemporary short stories which have become rather standard fare in many English courses—"Paul's Case," "Killers," and the like. To sum up the matter baldly, she found that her students tended to read figurative language literally, to miss satire and irony, and to have difficulty

in seeing the implications to be drawn from the author's explicit statements. To be sure, some of the other difficulties which her class encountered stem from the techniques of plot, characterization, and style employed by most modern writers. In these instances we are getting close to the debate whether the contemporary artist, whatever his medium, may not be something of an Alexandrian, creating for a small clique and prizing abstruseness and obscurity for their own sakes. The present place is scarcely an appropriate one for the discussion of that issue, and in any case it receives extended treatment in the journals devoted to criticism of the arts. This issue is likely to resolve itself into a controversy about whether the artist is too obscure or whether his audience is too dense or too ignorant. Probably there is some fault on both sides, but the audience, in this case the reader, is clearly the concern of secondary education.

A decent comprehension of the basic, explicit meaning stated by a piece of writing is certainly a necessary condition for the student's being able to do anything more with the piece; and, as all of us know who have ever taught or tested reading, this minimal comprehension on the part of students is not easy for the teacher to develop. When so many students find it hard to reach this minimum, to ask for more seems impossible. Then, too, we live in the age of the neon sign, the tabloid, the TV commercial, the scale of readability, and the like. All of these are based

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on the principle of making the reading plain and easy for the reader. In fact, many of them rest on the theory, "Don't expect the reader to do anything for himself with what he reads. Hit him over the head with it often enough, and maybe part of it will penetrate." This is hardly the climate in which the nuance, the implication, and the overtone will flourish. But whether we have "communication" without them is at least debatable.

Whatever the final judgment in the argument on whether the schools are adequately teaching the three R's, certainly the schools are giving an enormous amount of time and attention to the teaching of reading. Unless a lot of people have been wasting their time and the taxpayers' money, we

should be able to teach many aspects of reading much better than was formerly thought possible. But some of us worry occasionally whether these other aspects of reading get the attention they deserve. One does not have to dignify them with the labels "higher" or "subtler" or anything of the sort—though cases can be made out for all such labels. It suffices to say that these matters are part and parcel of what the writer is trying to say to the reader, and quite frequently the most important part. Therefore, it is heartening to see Miss Gill and her pupils coming to grips with them, and one hopes that this example is merely typical of what is going on in thousands of other classrooms.

HAROLD B. DUNKEL

## WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

*Authors of news notes and articles* The news notes in this issue have been prepared by HAROLD B.

DUNKEL, professor of education and director of precollegiate education at the University of Chicago. MARTIN LITTLE, professor of education at the University of Tennessee, gives the results of two studies to determine (1) whether children have the ability to detect propaganda; (2) whether this ability can be influenced by teaching. FRANCIS E. MORHOUS, assistant principal of Mont Pleasant High School, Schenectady, New York, and VINCENT T. MEARA, of the Technical Department at the same institution, describe one school's attempt to make youth aware of their civic responsibilities. JOSEPH KATZ, associate professor of education at the University of Manitoba, delineates the objects of study as they relate to the development of meaning and reality in the social studies. MARGERY R. BERNSTEIN, of the Reading Institute, New York University, uses two

selections, equivalent in readability, to show that comprehension of teenagers is closely related to interest in reading materials. CHARLES C. WILLIAMS, JR., formerly teacher of ninth-grade social studies at Clovis Union High School, Clovis, California, reports a study to determine the problems of high-school Freshmen and the help the school was giving, or could give, in the solving of the problems. WALTER J. MOORE, assistant professor of education at the College of Education at the University of Illinois, presents a list of selected references on secondary-school instruction.

*Reviewers of books* LLOYD B. URDAL, supervisor of records, Laboratory School of the University of Chicago. GEORGE J. SKEWES, professor of science and education, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minnesota. MARGARET H. PRITCHARD, supervisor of homemaking, Berkeley public schools, Berkeley, California.

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## CAN PUPILS IDENTIFY PROPAGANDA IN MOTION PICTURES?

MARTIN LITTLE

*University of Tennessee*



WITH increasing frequency, teachers are being asked to make classroom use of films of a highly propagandistic nature. Commercial firms, government agencies, labor organizations, political parties, the church, and other interest groups have recognized the motion picture as a powerful instrument for presenting a point of view to the public. These organizations have developed, and continue to develop, films for the receptive audiences found in classrooms of American schools, and such films usually are offered rent-free. Because of the increased interest among school people in the use of films and the limited budgets of most schools for materials of that sort, children see many propaganda films in the classrooms. It is important, therefore, to know whether children can recognize propaganda when they encounter it in films and elsewhere and also to know what factors in the child's development influence his judgment. On the basis of this information, propaganda literature and films could then be recognized for what they are and could be used for instructional purposes in light of that understanding.

Much has been written on the general topic of propaganda, and numerous studies have been produced to show the effects of motion pictures on behavior. For example, Peterson and Thurstone<sup>1</sup> have shown that attitudes can be changed through the viewing of motion pictures, and the studies and statements collected by Blumer<sup>2</sup> indicate the great influence that motion pictures exert in this area. However, little research has been undertaken to determine children's abilities to detect propaganda in motion pictures.

The present study is divided into two parts. Part I deals with the ability of children to detect propaganda in motion pictures and with the relation that intelligence, attitude toward referent ("that with which the motion picture deals"), factual knowledge about the referent, and knowledge about the use of propaganda techniques have to this ability. Part II of this study deals with the effects of

<sup>1</sup> Ruth C. Peterson and L. L. Thurstone, *Motion Pictures and the Social Attitudes of Children*. Payne Fund Studies of Motion Pictures and Youth. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933.

<sup>2</sup> Herbert Blumer, *Movies and Conduct*, pp. 31-34. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933.

teaching on the ability of pupils to detect propaganda in a motion picture.

#### DEFINITION OF TERMS

Terminology in the field of propaganda is inadequate, since wide variations in meaning are attached to terms by individuals and groups. For the purposes of this study, *propaganda* is defined as "the distortion of information, either through misrepresentation or selection, in order to create favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward some person, group of persons, object, institution, practice, or idea." *Attitude* is described as "emotionally colored disposition to react favorably or unfavorably with respect to some person, group of persons, object, institution, practice, or idea."

#### I. CHILDREN'S ABILITY TO DETECT PROPAGANDA

Questions raised in Part I of this study are whether children can identify propaganda in motion pictures and whether some or all of the factors of intelligence, attitudes, and knowledge influence the ability to detect propaganda. In order to find answers to these questions, the problem was studied in terms of the following hypotheses:

1. Children are able to detect propaganda in motion pictures.
2. The ability to detect propaganda in motion pictures is correlated positively with intelligence.
3. The ability of children to detect propaganda in motion pictures is

correlated positively with a lack of strong favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward the referent with which a film deals.

4. The ability to detect propaganda in motion pictures is correlated positively with knowledge of propaganda techniques.
5. The ability of children to detect propaganda in motion pictures is correlated positively with knowledge regarding the referent of the film.

*Film referent.*—The referent of the film in this study is the United Nations. The film used to test the children was *Watchtower over Tomorrow*, a twenty-minute film combining factual information and explanation of the workings of the United Nations with strong emotional appeals for public support of the organization.

*Subjects of the study.*—One hundred and twenty-five eighth-grade children were the subjects in Part I of this study. Seventy-five of these were from the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago, and fifty were from a public school in the city of Chicago. In addition to these children, one hundred seventh- and ninth-grade pupils from the Laboratory School were employed for purposes of determining the reliability and the validity of the various tests used in the experiment.

*Determining ability to detect propaganda.*—In order to discover whether children were able to detect propaganda in a motion picture, it was necessary for the children to judge

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each episode in the film as it appeared on the screen. The judgments were secured by means of a push-button device which each child held in his hand. The child was instructed to press the button if he thought a particular episode contained propaganda. The responses were recorded on a kymograph tape which was synchronized with the projection of the film. The responses were then scored by comparing them with a master-key compiled from the responses made by competent judges in advance of the testing of the children.

A problem arose in connection with the scoring because the judges ruled that twenty-one episodes contained propaganda and six episodes contained no propaganda. Because there were only six episodes containing no propaganda as opposed to twenty-one episodes containing propaganda, it would not have been accurate to score the results by adding the right responses in judging the episodes containing propaganda to the right responses in judging the episodes containing no propaganda. Therefore, two scores were obtained: (1) a "right" ( $R$ ) score based on the correct responses to the twenty-one episodes marked by the judges as containing propaganda and (2) a "wrong" ( $W$ ) score based on the incorrect responses to the six episodes marked by the judges as containing no propaganda. The following two formulas were developed involving both the right and the wrong scores:

$$S_1 \text{ (Selectivity score)} = R - \frac{7}{3} W.$$

$$S_2 \text{ (Suspicion score)} = R + \frac{7}{3} W.$$

The term  $\frac{7}{3}W$  is deducted in the first formula in order to give a score which expresses the subject's ability to judge propaganda episodes correctly but penalizes him for a tendency to judge all episodes as propagandistic. The term  $\frac{7}{3}W$  is derived from the fact that there were twenty-one chances to score right and only six chances to score wrong, and the ratio of 21 to 6 is  $\frac{7}{2}$ . If a subject said that all episodes contained propaganda, he would have a score of 21 right and 6 wrong, and his selectivity score would be  $21 - \frac{7 \times 6}{2} = 0$ . Similarly, if a subject marked no episodes as containing propaganda, his score would be zero. In effect, this formula is a modification of the usual scoring formula to eliminate guessing.<sup>3</sup>

The second formula,  $S_2 = R + \frac{7}{3}W$ , is intended to measure the subject's feelings of freedom to respond to any episode as propaganda whether or not it was considered propaganda by the judges. The effect of the weighting is to give the non-propaganda episodes equal weight with the propaganda group in determining the score.

Thus, the selectivity score and the suspicion score measure independently two different aspects of the responses of the subjects to the choice of situations containing propaganda.

<sup>3</sup> Charles C. Peters and Walter R. VanVoorhis, *Statistical Procedures and Their Mathematical Bases*, p. 101. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1935.



*Determining intelligence quotient and attitude toward referent.*—In order to study the effect of intelligence, attitude toward the United Nations, knowledge about the referent, and knowledge about the use of propaganda techniques on the ability to detect propaganda, it was necessary to secure information about these factors in advance of the film-reaction testing.

The intelligence quotients were obtained from the records of the children in the two schools. The attitude toward the United Nations was determined through the use of the Remmers Scale for Measuring Attitudes toward Any Institution.<sup>4</sup> With Remmers' permission, the items in the scale were changed from the general to the specific institution, that is, the United Nations. For example, Item 1 on the scale, "It is perfect in every way," was changed to read "The U.N. is perfect in every way." Although it is conceivable that such changes might influence the scale values of the items, Remmers thought that the influence could not be very great.

*Determining previous knowledge about the referent.*—To determine previous knowledge about the United Nations, a paper-and-pencil test was developed with questions selected largely from the United Nations Charter. Fifty multiple-choice questions were constructed covering the plan for the organization of the United Nations.

<sup>4</sup>H. H. Remmers (editor), *Studies in Higher Education: Studies in Attitudes*. Bulletin of Purdue University, Vol. XXXV, No. 4. Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University, 1934.

The test was administered to fifty seventh- and ninth-grade children and was reviewed by eight competent judges in the field of the social sciences. The resulting revised test contained forty items and was given to another group of one hundred seventh- and ninth-grade children. The reliability coefficient, obtained by the split-halves method, corrected by the Spearman-Bowman formula, was .89.

*Determining previous knowledge of propaganda techniques.*—Previous knowledge about the use of propaganda techniques was determined through the use of a test based on the seven common propaganda devices, as listed and described by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis.<sup>5</sup> Twenty-five paragraphs were prepared with materials—quotations from speeches, advertisements, and the activities of people—gleaned from such sources as magazines, newspapers, radio programs, and political meetings. Care was taken that all the propaganda techniques listed below were used several times in the various paragraphs, and the test included several paragraphs which, it was thought, contained the use of no propaganda technique. Seven devices were numbered and listed at the top of each sheet of the test and were discussed with the children. These seven devices were (1) "name-calling," (2) "glittering generalities," (3) "transfer," (4) "testimonial," (5) "plain folks," (6) "card-stacking," and (7) "band-wagon."

<sup>5</sup>*Propaganda Analysis*, Vols. I, II, and III. New York: Institute for Propaganda Analysis, Inc., 1938-40.

The children were then instructed to match the number or numbers of the devices with the appropriate paragraphs.

The test on propaganda techniques was given to fifty children in Grades VII and IX and was reviewed by four social-studies teachers in the Laboratory School. On the basis of the suggestions and questions of these teachers, the paragraphs were revised. Following the revision, a group of eight persons, teachers of the social studies and graduate students in the social sciences, took the test in order to determine the extent of their agreement with respect to what propaganda technique or techniques were being described in each of the paragraphs. A high per cent of agreement was shown on almost all the paragraphs, and on no paragraph was there less than 60 per cent of agreement. In a number of cases it was determined that more than one technique was used in the same paragraph.

Through the employment of techniques similar to those used in the case of the knowledge test, a reliability coefficient of .79 was obtained.

*Findings of study of ability to detect propaganda.*—The four hypotheses advanced with regard to the relation of several factors to the ability to detect propaganda were tested by intercorrelating the scores on the tests. The following is a summary of the findings.

1. A significant relation was found between children's discrimination ability and that of competent judges; that is to say, children are able to detect propaganda. The mean selectivity

scores for both groups were significantly greater than zero, with a probability far beyond the 1 per cent level. The correlations between right and wrong scores, .50 for the Laboratory School children and .54 for the public school group, suggest a discernible tendency for persons who mark propaganda items as such also to mark non-propaganda items as propaganda. This over-all suspiciousness is taken into account by the selectivity scoring

TABLE 1

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE AND SCORES ON ABILITY TO DETECT PROPAGANDA FOR 75 LABORATORY SCHOOL CHILDREN AND 50 PUBLIC SCHOOL PUPILS

Measure Correlated with Intelligence	Laboratory School	Public School
Selectivity score...	.209	.034
Suspicion score...	.080	.032
Right score.....	.184	.167
Wrong score.....	-.029	.136

formula and is measured directly by the score on the wrong answers. It is combined with the number right in the suspicion score to give a measure of the subject's freedom to "accuse" the film and the various prestige figures in the film of attempting to propagandize him.

2. Little relation was found between intelligence and the ability to detect propaganda, prior to specific teaching. The data (Table 1) suggest that there is no consistent relation between intelligence and the various scores.

3. The range of attitudes toward

the United Nations, as measured by the Remmers scale, was not sufficient to warrant calculating the correlations with the ability to detect propaganda. The mean attitude score of 9.47 with a standard deviation of .80 for the Laboratory School pupils and a mean attitude score of 9.08 with a standard deviation of 1.10 for the other group represent high favorable attitudes on the part of both groups toward the referent. Too few of the pupils held negative attitudes to enable the present study to show whether the correlations would have remained the same had there been a wider range in attitude.

4. A slight relation was found between a knowledge of propaganda techniques, as measured by a paper-and-pencil test, and the ability to detect propaganda in the episode-reaction test, but the relation was too small to allow any prediction of the second from the first. The correlations between intelligence quotient and results on the paper-and-pencil tests of propaganda were .48 and .37, respectively, for the two school groups.

It would seem that ability to detect propaganda in films is not the same as the knowledge of propaganda techniques, the latter being more closely related to verbal skills. The fact that the mean "Propaganda Techniques Score" was 21.39 with a standard deviation of 4.08 for the Laboratory School and 11.98 with a standard deviation of 4.00 for the public school, when the total possible score was 30, is indicative of the fact that the chil-

dren, particularly those in the Laboratory School, are reasonably well able to analyze the use of propaganda techniques in written situations. This ability, however, does not seem to carry over to situations involving the viewing of motion pictures. High scorers on the test of knowledge of propaganda techniques did only slightly better on the episode-reaction test than did the low scorers.

5. No relation was found between knowledge about the United Nations and the ability to detect propaganda. In the Laboratory School there were low positive correlations between knowledge of subject matter and the selectivity and the right scores. In the public school there were significant negative correlations between knowledge of subject matter and the suspicion and the wrong scores. This would seem to indicate that knowledge of subject matter in this case is accompanied by a favorable attitude toward the referent and that attitude brings about the negative relation with the suspicion score and the wrong score. This finding was supported by a positive correlation between subject-matter knowledge and attitude and a negative correlation between the suspicion score and attitude in the public school.

*Limitations of Part I of the study.*—One propaganda film containing forty-four clearly defined episodes was used in Part I of the study. Twenty-seven of these episodes could be used for scoring purposes. No doubt this small number of episodes imposes a limita-

tion on the confidence to be placed in the conclusions reached. However, there is no reason to believe that the use of a longer film or of several films would have changed the direction of the differences.

Another limitation of this study concerns the information secured on attitude toward the referent. The range of differences in favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward the referent of the film was insufficient to give clear results with respect to the influence of attitude on the ability to detect propaganda.

Still another limitation was that "knowledge of propaganda techniques" was largely confined to the seven devices listed by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis. This constitutes only one, and undoubtedly an oversimplified, approach.

*Conclusions.*—From the findings of this study it is concluded that children, prior to specific training, are able to detect propaganda in motion pictures and that certain factors are more important than others in this process. Since there was little relation between intelligence quotient and the scores on selectivity and suspiciousness, the hypothesis that ability to detect propaganda in films is correlated positively with intelligence is rejected.

There were relatively high correlations between intelligence quotient and results on the paper-and-pencil tests of knowledge of propaganda techniques and between intelligence and subject-matter knowledge, which were consistent for children in both

schools. These correlations, together with very low correlations obtained for the measures through the motion-picture study, suggest that the correlation between results on paper-and-pencil tests of propaganda and intelligence quotient are due more to verbal skills than to a knowledge of propaganda techniques.

From the findings of the study it is concluded that, prior to specific training, attitude toward the referent, knowledge about the referent, and knowledge about propaganda techniques have little, if anything, to do with the ability of pupils to detect propaganda. It is possible that these results are attributable to the fact that human beings tend to be swayed through emotional build-up and that they defend their beliefs on a purely emotional basis. This is an idea that has been put forth by many investigators, including the Institute of Propaganda Analysis.

The evidence shows that children are reasonably well able to analyze the use of propaganda techniques in written situations but that this ability does not seem to carry over to situations involving the viewing of motion pictures. Much more study needs to be given to the influence of various factors on the ability to detect propaganda, perhaps with sharper instruments and with various kinds of films. Other factors that might well be studied are sex, age, and social and economic backgrounds as they affect the ability to identify propaganda.

## II. INFLUENCE OF TEACHING ON ABILITY TO DETECT PROPAGANDA

*Subjects and procedure.*—Part II of this study tested the hypothesis that the ability of children to detect propaganda in motion pictures can be significantly increased through a study of propaganda which includes practices in detecting propaganda. Two groups, each including thirty eighth-grade children from the Laboratory School, were used as subjects. Each group was given the tests described in the preceding pages. The experimental group then pursued the study of propaganda through the use of a social-studies unit on the subject.

In the unit on propaganda, no effort was made to study the United Nations, the referent of the film used in this research. The major portion of the work centered in critical analyses of all types of propaganda in various modes of presentations. It was expected that, as a result of his work with the unit, each child should be able to:

1. Classify propaganda into the seven devices formulated by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis
2. Recognize limitations of this classification and develop other ways of classifying propaganda
3. Draw correct generalizations from data presented in graphs, cartoons, films, newspaper articles, radio broadcasts, and so on
4. Identify propaganda in various types of presentations
5. Formulate various definitions of propaganda and criticize them from the standpoint of their usefulness as an aid to the identification of propaganda
6. Show an increased tendency to suspend

judgment on matters until sufficient data are in hand

7. Become increasingly aware of the need to analyze statements from the standpoint of the purposes of those making them

The experimental group studied the unit on propaganda during a period of five weeks. Then both groups were given the film-reaction test a second time. The significance of the differences in the mean scores on the pretest and on the post-test was determined through testing the probability that a difference could have occurred by chance. Thus, the effects of teaching on the ability to detect propaganda were determined in two ways. One procedure was that of showing difference in mean scores made on pretest and post-test by the experimental group and by the control group. The other check was to compare the difference in gain of the experimental group over that of the control group after the experimental group had been taught the unit on propaganda.

*Findings of study of effect of teaching.*—Sharp increases in performance on the film-episode response scores were noted for the experimental group. The mean selectivity score rose from 6.36 to 13.36, the difference being statistically significant beyond the 1 per cent level. This shows that the teaching increased the ability of the subjects to discriminate between propaganda and non-propaganda episodes. The suspicion scores, which in effect show the subject's freedom to suspect propaganda, were not affected by the teaching. The powers of discrimination increased, but the suspiciousness neither



increased nor decreased. Whatever it is, then, that causes a child to suspect that he is being propagandized was not affected by the teaching. The right score increased significantly, and the wrong score decreased, but not enough to be statistically significant.

The film-reaction scores on the pre-test and on the final test tended to remain approximately the same for the control group. A slight decrease between the means was shown for all scores, but it was not enough to be significant.

Part I of this study indicated that the differences in pupils' ability to detect propaganda are not attributable to intelligence or prior attitudes held toward the referent of the film used. The same conclusions were drawn concerning a prior knowledge of propaganda techniques and a knowledge of subject-matter content of the referent of the film. It must, therefore, have been the teaching about propaganda, which included practice in identifying propaganda, that caused the gain in the ability of the experimental group to detect propaganda.

*Implications.*—The findings and conclusions of Part II of this study have implications in several areas: (1) school curriculum, (2) teaching methods, (3) teacher training, and (4) research. As a basis for many of the implications which follow, it is assumed that the ability to detect propaganda is desirable.

Since it has been found that teaching children a unit on propaganda analysis increases in great measure the ability to detect propaganda in a test

situation, it seems important that the problem of propaganda be included in the curriculum. This statement is based on the assumption that it is desirable for children to be trained to think clearly and critically and to form judgments about the major social, economic, and political problems with which people are faced.

It is important, also, that the teaching methods allow children the maximum opportunity to work on propaganda analysis in a meaningful way. In the present study the problems-approach method was employed, and the children were encouraged to engage in a wide variety of activities. It is doubtful that the results of this study would have been the same had more rigid or traditional methods been employed.

These considerations have further implications for both in-service and pre-service teacher training. It could be argued that all teachers, as part of their training, might well be required to have a background of study in the social sciences which would include a knowledge of the techniques and the uses of propaganda.

Since one of the major findings of this study points to teaching as a key element in the child's ability to detect propaganda, future research in this area might well be concerned with the improvement of the kind and quality of instruction. An important question is: What methods of teaching will bring best results in developing the ability to detect propaganda and in showing children how to use that information for worth-while purposes?

## FOCUSING STUDENT ATTENTION ON CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

FRANCIS E. MORHOUS AND VINCENT T. MEARA

*Mont Pleasant High School, Schenectady, New York*



CIVIC EDUCATION was the subject of a project participated in by the entire faculty and student body of Mont Pleasant High School, Schenectady, New York. All students and teachers, as well as some thirty civic leaders who were called in from the community as consultants, devoted an entire day to the study of civic responsibilities of high-school youth.

The experiment was sparked by a rising concern in the community because of increasing vandalism and juvenile delinquency. The program was implemented through the efforts of a committee of five faculty members and two interested laymen. As vandalism is not a problem at Mont Pleasant High School the work was regarded purely as a community service to assist, if possible, in solving a pressing community problem. Since the committee felt that a positive rather than a negative approach to the problem of juvenile delinquency and vandalism would be most effective, the emphasis was placed on the civic responsibilities of teen-agers.

### PREPARATIONS FOR STUDENT STUDY

*Groundwork.*—The plan for a "Civic Education Day" was first announced

at a faculty meeting. It was stated that the actual study by students, with civic leaders as consultants, would last only one day. The ground was laid in the following manner.

A preliminary announcement to students appeared in the *News* (a school newspaper appearing each morning):

What are some of the things which you, as a citizen, should do for your community—the state—the country? How familiar are you with your civic responsibilities? For the next few days the morning *News* will have a question on civic responsibilities. Soon we shall have a special day devoted to a discussion of this topic. Pupils are asked to prepare for it by talking over the questions in the *News* with their friends and in their classes. On March 27 most of the school day will be devoted to a study of "Civic Responsibilities for High School Students." We plan to have an assembly in the morning, followed by a discussion period for all classes, and we expect to have a panel discussion in the auditorium during the afternoon. Pupils are asked to bring to their second-period class teacher any current literature which they may find on citizenship training. Any newspaper or magazine articles, pamphlets, or books which treat of how organizations, such as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, YWCA, YMCA, and Boys' Clubs, help you to be good citizens, or which deal with vandalism or delinquency, will make good discussion material.

The series of thought-provoking questions published in the morning *News* was read in all classes every day during the home-room period. These questions appeared once a day for five days preceding the preliminary survey:

1. A survey made just before the last election showed that the only civic responsibility most adults could name was the obligation of citizens to vote. How many civic responsibilities of citizens can you name in sixty seconds?

2. Should law-enforcement be considered the sole responsibility of the police, or should private citizens be expected to help?

3. A criticism frequently made by foreign observers is that Americans lack a sense of civic responsibility. As evidence they mention our high crime rate and our troubles with juvenile delinquents. Do you think American youth lacks a sense of civic responsibility? If so, how many reasons can you state in support of your opinion?

4. Voting is one of the last civic responsibilities that is assumed by citizens of this country. Are you familiar with the civic duties for which you have already become responsible?

5. Pupils' ten-second quiz: What civic responsibility is required of men in this country that is not required of women? (Teachers please send to office names of students able to give correct answer in ten seconds.)

The series of questions aroused considerable interest among the students and were discussed in several classes. An interesting side light to Question 5 was that the answer we had in mind was "military service," but an answer occurring frequently among those sent in was "jury duty." This was also correct, since jury duty for women is

optional in many states. Over a hundred students were able to answer the last question in the time allotted—a response which surprised us very much.

Simultaneously, the librarians prepared a display of materials, and students brought clippings from current periodicals and newspapers for bulletin boards in various classrooms. English and social-studies classes held informal discussions, and ideas snowballed with aroused enthusiasm. Some teachers asked students to write briefly on phases of civic responsibility; in other classes, students chose the topic for research papers.

*Invitations.*—Meanwhile, behind the scenes, letters were written by office-practice classes, inviting civic leaders to be present on March 27, the day set aside for study of civic responsibilities. When the answers were returned, we had acceptances from the following adults, who were to act as consultants in all classes when the actual day for our citizenship study arrived: Archibald Wemple, the mayor; Emmett Lynch, the district attorney; Joseph Foley, commissioner of police; E. A. Palmer, manager of the Chamber of Commerce; Abram Livingston, supervisor of the probation department; Harry J. Linton, superintendent of schools; Ruth Wooschloeger, professor at the Albany State Teachers College; Reverend Ray Sevrance, a Protestant minister; Father Francis Ryan, a Catholic priest; and Rabbi Sidney Goldstein, a Jewish rabbi. In addition, there were accept-

ances from about thirty other prominent civic leaders from various fields.

Excellent co-operation was given by local newspapers. Also, members of the school student-board volunteered to act as guides for our visiting celebrities on "Study Day." The school

program. It was also felt that to take a survey before the test was given would provide material that might be useful in the panel and classroom discussions on the actual program and as a basis for discussion afterward.

Inquiry at various sources showed

TABLE 1  
SUMMARY OF REPLIES OF 1,119 STUDENTS TO OBJECTIVE-TYPE  
QUESTIONS ON CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY SURVEY\*

RESPONSE	TOPIC A. NUMBER OF PUPILS INDICATING RESPONSIBILITY						
	Pay Taxes	Be Loyal to Country	Protect Property	Observe the Law	Protect Civil Rights	Acquire Education	Be Well Informed
1. Is the most important.....	40	561	4	143	90	64	20
2. Are doing best.....	25	90	57	268	54	458	14
3. Are doing poorly or not at all	453	8	84	21	87	38	243
4. Generally done best by teen-agers.....	6	175	37	43	62	582	62
5. Teen-agers do poorest job...	25	5	497	157	108	36	123
	TOPIC B. NUMBER OF PUPILS INDICATING PROBLEM						
	Organized Crime	Juvenile Delinquency	Vandalism	Traffic Deaths and Accidents	Disease Control	Slum Clearance	Decline of Moral Values
2. Could be solved with help of high-school pupils.....	26	298	338	229	9	21	48
5. Has best chance of solution in foreseeable future.....	81	130	94	110	290	250	24

\* Not all the students answered all the questions.

newspaper issued on the previous week end featured "the day."

*The preliminary survey.*—A preliminary survey was used as a tool to build up student interest in the subject of civic responsibilities and stimulate discussions regarding it. While helping in this way, the first survey was also thought of as laying the foundation for the actual work of the

that there were no standard commercial tests which would suit our purposes, so the test used was a home-made one. We prepared the first survey with two chief ideas in mind: (1) to determine the civic responsibilities with which students were most familiar and which they considered most important and (2) to sample students' attitudes toward certain prob-

lems connected with civic responsibilities.

It was felt that to use a completely objective-type test in the survey would limit the nature of replies much more than would be desirable. On the other hand, the difficulty of checking and summarizing more than a thousand tests made it necessary to keep the replies as simple as possible. The form finally used combined objective questions which are easily answered and questions which call for original expression of opinion. The "Civic Responsibilities Survey" is reproduced below.

#### CIVIC RESPONSIBILITIES SURVEY

A. Here is a partial list of civic responsibilities that must be assumed by all citizens of a democracy:

1. Pay taxes
2. Be loyal to their country
3. Protect public and private property
4. Observe the law
5. Observe and protect civic rights of others
6. Acquire an education
7. Be well informed

1. Which of these do you feel is most important? (Number)

2. Which do you feel you are doing best? (Number)

3. Which do you feel you are doing most poorly or not at all? (Number)

4. Which do you think is generally done best by teen-agers? (Number)

5. In which responsibility do you think teen-agers do the poorest job? (Number)

B. Here is a partial list of civic problems which can only be solved by concerted action of all citizens:

1. Organized crime
2. Juvenile delinquency
3. Vandalism
4. High traffic death and accident rate
5. Control of disease
6. Slum clearance
7. Decline of moral values

1. Which of these problems most directly concerns pupils of high-school age? Why? (Give brief reason for answer.)

(Number)

2. Which of these problems do you think could be solved with the help of pupils of high-school age? (Number)

3. Have you had any personal experience with any of these problems? (Write briefly.)

4. Have you ever done anything that might have helped in solving any of these problems? (Write briefly and give number.) (Number)

5. Which of these problems do you think has the best chance of being solved in the foreseeable future? (Number)

The preliminary survey was given to all students (1,199) three days before the program in an extended thirty-minute home-room period. The results were then tabulated by the home-room teachers, who were directed to send to the office on the provided form the tabulation of the results of Topic A and Questions 2 and 5 of Topic B, and to include the *best* answers to Questions 1, 3, and 4 of Topic B. The replies for the objective-type questions are summarized in Table 1.

Only four students thought that protection of public and private prop-



erty was the most important responsibility of a citizen. Yet a majority of students disclosed the belief that protection of public and private property is the civic responsibility that teenagers carry out most poorly. This is good agreement and is an indication that the test was given thoughtful consideration by the students and that the answers were meaningful. The connection of these attitudes to vandalism by teen-agers is apparent. It is also interesting that 243 students thought that they were not doing a good job of keeping well informed.

In the summaries to Topic B it may be noted that the students thought that the problems of juvenile delinquency and vandalism were those most likely to be solved by their help and that they did not feel that either of these problems are likely to be solved in the near future.

Copies of the complete summary were given to all social-studies teachers to use as a basis for discussion in their classes. An abbreviated summary was also published in the morning *News* on the day before the special program.

The answers given to the questions where the students were asked to write essay-type answers were revealing. The following are some of the answers exactly as they were written on the papers.

*Which of these problems most directly concerns students of high-school age? Why? (Give brief reason for answer.)*

Juvenile delinquency. If a person is mistreated at home, and isn't understood by

parents, it makes him want to do those things such as stealing, being disobedient, unhappy, and confused.

Because more fellows are getting cars today and they don't know how to drive, but it is called driving or "hot-rodding." It seems to me that driving requires a great deal of responsibility, but some fellows I know don't think so. They just keep right on racing around the city showing off in front of girls.

Because most of the vandalism is done by young people who have nothing better to do. *There isn't much to keep us occupied in Schenectady.*

Parents have little or no time with their children, so they do as they please.

Because of the lack of discipline received in the home and the new ideas of modern education. If, at home and in school, children are allowed to do just as they please, they will also do as they wish in the community.

Teen-agers who are idle turn to petty crimes. Their parents do not insist on knowing their whereabouts.

Because teen-agers frequently are in groups. When they are in these groups they don't think for themselves and uphold their own moral beliefs.

At this tender age most high-school students are very easily influenced, and it is very easy for them to get into the "wrong" crowds. Unhappy family background also breaks down morals.

The teen-age person is easily led astray. If other things and activities are not taking up the time of the young people, they are very liable to be led into moral destruction.

*Have you ever done anything that might have helped in solving any of these problems?*

Some kids wanted to break into a store, but I stopped them by telling them what might happen if they got caught.

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Yes, I saw a large group of small boys under the influence of an older wise guy, went over and talked some sense into them and probably [avoided] some property damage.

On the lower East Side is a community house to keep the teen-agers off the streets and thus away from trouble. I taught a group of children, three days a week for three hours. We taught them various things, such as art, leather-craft, swimming, cooking, basketball, and dancing.

Yes. Everytime I hear an adult criticize teen-agers, I try to point out the good aspects of them. I doubt whether it does any good or not, but I have the satisfaction of knowing that I *might* have changed someone's opinion.

#### THE PROGRAM

After the preliminary preparation, the actual study day began. The home-room period was extended until 9 A.M., when all students and teachers were invited to the auditorium to hear a speech by Dr. Frederick Lobdell, director of education at the Berkshire Farm Industrial School, Canaan, New York. After the speech, half of the film, *Children on Trial*, a British Information Service Film which presents a vivid picture of the problem of juvenile delinquents, was shown. Only the first reel was shown, since it proposed a number of problems but gave no hint as to how they might be solved.

Then the students, teachers, and the various consultants, each of whom had been assigned to different classes met in the second-period classes, there to discuss any problems which had arisen as direct result of the film or as

a result of other discussions of the past weeks. Many of the classes had a student chairman to lead the discussion, while some classes simply asked questions of the consultant. Interest ran high. A previously appointed student-secretary in each classroom took notes and wrote a summary. At the end of a fifty-minute period, the summaries were sent to a faculty committee, who classified the summaries into topics or questions to be used during a panel discussion for all classes and consultants in the auditorium during the afternoon session.

At noon the classroom period was adjourned for lunch. During part of this time the consultants met in the school library. Some of them, who had not entered a school for many years, expressed genuine surprise and pleasure that such a large group of high-school students realized the seriousness of the problems of teen-age delinquency and vandalism. They observed that students were honestly trying to understand and to solve these problems. The consultants agreed that the problems were those of the home, the church, and the school—in that order. They also expressed the belief that more such projects in civic education should be undertaken.

In the afternoon, on the stage and participating in the panel were the mayor, the superintendent of schools, the head of the county probation department, the district attorney, and two high-school Seniors. Each panel member had been given a topic or a

question which the summary committee had prepared during the lunch period, and the discussion opened with Mr. Francis E. Morhous, the assistant principal, as moderator. Subsequently, questions were asked of the panel members by the student audience. At that time, two students who had written themes on "Civic Responsibilities for High-School Youth" were appointed to a Mayor's Committee to study the problem in the city hall from the standpoint of reducing teen-age delinquency in the city of Schenectady.

#### SURVEY AFTER THE PROGRAM

Two days after the program another survey of student opinion was made. This survey had three purposes:

1. To sample student opinion of the program
2. To obtain suggestions as to how the program could have been improved
3. To sample attitudes toward some of the problems that had been discussed

This survey was made in selected English classes meeting during the second period—these were the classes which had the long discussion period on the day of the program. Probably the best method would have been to give this survey to the whole school, but it was felt that any strong trend would show up if the sample were reasonably large. Accordingly, a sample of about 225 students was selected to give an approximately equal distribution as to year in school and ability in English, since our English classes are organized on three levels of ability.

The students were asked to check

the statement which best described their feelings toward the program. These statements ranged from "Excellent program—would like to have another like it some time" to "Would rather have had regular school work." The students were also asked whether they had learned anything about civic responsibilities that particularly impressed them; what topics they would like to have discussed at greater length; and what suggestions they would have for a future program as to length, topic, form, and student participation. In the last question in the survey an instance of juvenile delinquency was narrated. The students were asked to check the one of six sentences listed which best described their feelings about the people in the story.

The written answers expressing opinions on the program were very informative. The principal reaction to the question on civic responsibilities was that students were surprised to find out how many civic responsibilities they had. Most said they had not thought of assuming civic responsibilities until they became of voting age.

Of the topics discussed, the one mentioned most often as worthy of attention at greater length was that of safe driving for teen-agers. The problem of "show-off" teen-age drivers and "hot-rodders" was mentioned many times.

In regard to program arrangements, most students thought the length of the program about right, although a small per cent thought that a half-day

might be long enough. The topics mentioned most often as desirable for a future discussion were "safe driving," "vandalism" and "juvenile delinquency." Most students would have the same form of program in the future, although there was some criticism of certain features of the program. Some complained that a few members of the panel tended to "pass the buck" in answering questions directed specifically at them.

The most common suggestion was that more time be allotted to the class discussions. This tied in well with the answers to the questions asking for their suggestions for similar programs, which included a good many criticisms of the role of the students. Several students said that they felt they had been too much talked to, rather than consulted with, during the program. Several declared that the adult participants had monopolized the class discussions and that the students had not been able to contribute much.

Many recommendations were made by all participating. Some students

suggested that more driver-training classes were needed; others, that there should be more recreation facilities in the city. All agreed that there should be more "Civic Education Days" and more student participation in school government.

The next day the students, in response to a deluge of requests, were allowed to view the second half of the film *Children on Trial*.

#### IMPLICATIONS

It is the belief of the writers that this "Civic Education Day" focused attention upon our responsibilities as citizens—everyone was impressed with the seriousness of the problem. It is also their sincere hope that, with a continuing follow-up, the study will have been worth while in that it may aid in setting up a new improved pattern of citizenship behavior, at least in the students participating in the program. It is their conviction that, if students are given proper training while they are young, they will be more likely to be well-informed, responsible citizens as adults.

# THE SOCIAL OBJECTS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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THE TEACHER of the social studies in the secondary school is usually concerned with the teaching of one or more of the subjects having to do with history, geography, economics, or civics. Each of these subjects of study has to do with man and his activities. In history the teacher is concerned with such things as dates, events, movements, and the like. In geography—that is, human geography as distinct from physical geography—the concern is with the interaction between man and his environment. Economics is concerned with matters of trade and trading activities. The study of civics deals with activities in government, political activity, and the like.

In all these the information is characterized by being the record of a human act at a specific time or place. Furthermore, individuals and groups are studied in terms of the recorded events in which they participated. The central fact about each of these studies is that man is studied in time and place through the record of his activities.

## NATURE OF SOCIAL-STUDIES

### MATERIALS

The teacher of the social studies must recognize the nature of the ma-

terials with which he is dealing. He must realize that in these materials he must isolate the main idea and define its properties. Earl S. Johnson has defined the nature of a social object and pointed up the fundamental significance of this concept for the teaching of the social studies:

Objects of social study are social rather than physical objects. . . . They are of the nature of beliefs, attitudes, conditions, relationships, and processes. . . . They may be known in terms of statements or propositions made about them, or their attributes. These reveal how they work and inform us how we may act or operate toward them.<sup>1</sup>

It is the purpose of this article to discuss a particular application of Johnson's definition to the teaching of history. Although Johnson's definition has much wider significance for the teaching of the social studies than is herein set forth, it is valuable, until such time as materials and perspectives are ready, to consider the manner in which the concept may be applied to materials and perspectives that do now exist.

<sup>1</sup> Earl S. Johnson, "The Anatomy of Teaching Learning," p. 11. Unpublished manuscript, Division of Social Sciences, University of Chicago.

Johnson also treats this topic in his paper, "Things, Contexts, and Meanings." Unpublished manuscript, Division of Social Sciences, University of Chicago.



## ITEMS OF INFORMATION

The body of information which the teacher of the social studies and his students recognize as the object of study in the classroom is the record of events. This record, whether in text-book or pamphlet, magazine or newspaper, model or film, becomes the focus of attention. Events, personalities, governments, movements, elections—all have this in common: they are human activities. The description of these activities, however, may be such that the statement submerges the fact of activity and the essential idea of activity is lost.

Thus, an item of information in the social studies may be considered as an object of study devoid of its element of activity. For example, the information that Columbus was outfitted by Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, that he sailed south and west, that he reached the West Indies in 1492, are items which may be objects in themselves or may be recognized as representing activities. As objects in themselves, "Columbus" remains a name in contrast to Columbus as a person; "sailing west and south" remains a direction in contrast to the activity of sailing in which all the happenings aboard a ship on a long sea voyage are real and vital manifestations of activity; "outfitted by Isabella and Ferdinand" suggests an act but does not fully reveal the activities of outfitting. The central fact in considering the objects of study in the social studies is that these objects of study are

social in character. Though they may not be weighed and measured, as are objects of study in the physical or biological sciences, the objects of study are nevertheless real, if not material.

AN EXAMPLE: SOCIAL OBJECTS  
IN HISTORY

For example, what happens in the classroom when teacher and student concern themselves with a page of history? The following paragraph is typical of the kind of material to be found in history textbooks.

Fortunately for the French, the Treaty of Utrecht was followed by the long period of peace from 1713 to 1744. They used it well, not only repairing their damaged structure, but also trying to create the empire planned by their explorer, La Salle. He had hoped to build a chain of forts stretching in an arc along the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi, and anchored at the mouths of the two rivers; but his death and the wars with England had prevented it. Now the French proceeded with the plan.<sup>2</sup>

The items of information which are to be found in this paragraph may be listed as follows:

1. The French were fortunate.
2. The Treaty of Utrecht was followed by peace.
3. There was a long peace between 1713 and 1744.
4. The French used the peace to (a) repair damage and (b) create the empire.
5. The empire had been planned by La Salle.
6. La Salle had envisioned an empire stretching along (a) the St. Lawrence,

<sup>2</sup> J. W. Chafe and A. R. M. Lower, *Canada—A Nation*, p. 96. Toronto: Longmans, Green & Co., 1950.

- (b) the Great Lakes, and (c) the Mississippi.
7. La Salle had envisioned a system of forts anchored at the mouths of two rivers.
  8. La Salle had died.
  9. France and England had been at war.
  10. Little or nothing had been done about La Salle's idea.
  11. France went ahead with the plan.

We may note here that each item of information, in context, may become an object of study. The particular quality of each of these items of information is that it is a social object. Each item of information is a social object in that it describes a social action or activity. A social object may describe an activity actively or passively. For example, "The French were fortunate" is a passive description of an action, in that the French were the receivers of fortune. On the other hand, "The French used the peace" is an active description, for here the French were the initiators of the activity. In either instance an action or an activity is involved.

#### PROPERTIES OF SOCIAL AND PHYSICAL OBJECTS

A social object differs from an item of information in physics or chemistry where the object of study may be weighed or measured, as in studying that by electrolysis water yields two parts hydrogen and one part oxygen. Repetition of the experiment will yield the same result. The social objects cannot be repeated as can the physical objects. Nevertheless, the factor common to social objects and to physical objects is that each class of

objects possesses properties which govern the activities. It is this element of possessing *certain properties* which constitutes the core of the object to be studied, since each object, physical or social, takes its meaning from its properties. For example, hydrogen is characterized by certain properties which govern its activity. Properties of social objects which govern activity can also be found. For example, in the social object "the empire planned by La Salle," the activity is determined by the property of vision or creativeness or imagination.

A further consideration of the way in which the factor common to physical objects and to social objects may be demonstrated is presented in the following example. The physical object "a leaf" possesses properties which govern its activity. A leaf possesses the property of using carbon dioxide and water to make sugar. The activity of the leaf in making sugar is governed by its particular properties. The social object "a war" possesses properties which govern its activity. One of the properties of war is aggressiveness, another is the use of arms, and these properties, as well as others, govern the activity called "war." But the study of either a leaf or a war may be of such a nature as to lead to only a recognition of a leaf or of a war without gaining insight into the activity of a leaf or of a war as governed by their respective properties.

A physical or a social object may be recognized by its name only, without

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recall of the necessary properties. It is at this point that, in practice, the teaching of the social studies parts ways with the teaching of the physical, chemical, and biological studies. The teacher of the physical sciences, for example, would not consider the study of iron without a study of its properties. The teacher of the social studies, however, has on more than one occasion undertaken the study of elections without considering the "properties" of an election. To consider the "properties" of an election would be to consider ballots, ballot boxes, forms of announcement, and the like, all of which, in a manner, govern the action in an election. Physical and social objects both possess properties which govern each of their activities. Though the properties governing physical objects can be ascertained within more rigid limits than those governing social objects, it is of paramount importance to recognize that in both instances the properties of the object are used to describe it and to provide an insight into its nature.

#### MAKING SOCIAL OBJECTS REAL

In connection with our sample paragraph of history, it was noted that eleven social objects were placed before the student for consideration as history. These objects are taken as history because they are given as the record of what has happened. (It should be noted, in passing, that a notebook record of obtaining oxygen in the laboratory is also a "history" of

an experiment.) But the *eleven* social objects may, in reality, be presented as *one* social object, for it may be said, "The French used the time between 1713 and 1744 following Utrecht to make real La Salle's dream of empire." This *précis*, however, constitutes a social object in which the major properties become obscured. What this form of the social object does is generalize the particulars in a manner that makes it more difficult to recognize the particular properties involved, but the properties, nonetheless, are the same. However reduced the phraseology, the particular properties inhering in the situation, in the personalities, and in the vision govern the central activity being described. The eleven social objects may be presented as one social object, but doing so makes it more difficult to recognize the properties of the social object. The writer of a textbook in history may generalize to the degree that the objects of social study which he presents actually defeat the objectives of social study.

The central consideration of this paper is, however, not one of discriminating between physical and social objects but in pointing to the implications of the aforementioned analysis for the teaching of the social studies. When any one social object in the classroom is treated as if it were many social objects, or if many are treated as if they were one, then the real properties of the central object are lost. In other words, the main idea expressed in a particular sentence, para-

graph, or chapter, or even a book, has to be stripped of all subordinate ideas, and the properties of the main idea brought into sharp focus. Moreover, whatever method the teacher of the social studies may follow in the classroom, whether reading, lecture, discussion, project, assignment, or problem, he must deal with the properties of any social object in such a way as to clarify the activity of the social object.

The reality of a social object stems from the properties which govern the activity of the object. A social object may be made real by describing it in terms of its properties. For example, the statement that "Franklin D. Roosevelt was the choice of the Democratic party for president" constitutes a social object whose properties govern the activity. The activity here is choice. The properties of this social object have to do with Roosevelt as a person, with the complexion of the Democratic party, and with the office of president. The act of choosing is governed by each of the aforementioned generalized properties. The reality of the social object, as defined by the statement about the object, cannot be made real unless and until the properties governing the activity and implicit in the social object are dealt with. This means that, to be made real, a page of history, or even a paragraph, must have the main idea

isolated, its properties defined, and the *situation reconstructed*.

#### THE SOCIAL OBJECT IS THE SOCIAL ACT

There is need to look on social studies as records of social objects. The teaching of the social studies in the secondary school cannot breathe life into the records of human activities in the classroom unless the properties governing activity are dealt with, however complex these properties may be. The teacher is, therefore, required to look upon history, human geography, economics, and civics not as items of information which are in themselves objects of study but as the record of events which are social objects. When these social objects are examined, the focus of attention is the activity in the recorded event. The *social object* in the social studies is the *social act*.

It is at this point that the reality of the past may be identified with the reality of the present. It is at this point, too, that the reality of society may be identified with the reality of the individual and of the group. Activity, human activity, is the central thesis of the social studies. By looking at the way in which human beings behave in social situations, at the way in which they behave in particular environments, the student comes to recognize the properties which govern the activity of social objects. The meaningfulness of the social studies

derives from a recognition by the student of the properties governing social objects. Without this recognition, the items of information remain inert.

Students and teachers alike have come to look upon studies having to do with physical objects as being different in all respects from studies having to do with social objects. If, however, it may be recognized that the central fact of both social objects and

physical objects is the fact that each possesses properties by means of which the activity may be examined and to some degree determined, then the difference in attitude toward these studies may no longer continue. Not only the fact of the usefulness of each of the areas of study will be pointed up, but also the fact that social objects, like physical objects, are real and tangible objects of study.



# IMPROVED READING THROUGH INTEREST

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CLASSROOM TEACHERS are convinced from their observation that children learn best in those areas in which they are interested. Modern education has recognized and used this principle for many years. In the field of reading especially, efforts have been made to develop interesting and attractive books for school use. Recently, however, readability formulas have been devised to aid in the preparation and selection of reading materials. These formulas are based on objective factors, such as sentence length and vocabulary load, and they ignore the subjective factor of interest.

## PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

The purpose of the study described below was to explore ways in which interest is related to reading comprehension.

Interest is viewed as a complex feeling or attitude derived from three sources: (1) characteristics of the reader, including physical and emotional well-being at the time of reading, background of experience, favorite hobbies and occupations, and ability to understand the selection; (2) factors inherent in the reading matter itself, including form, style, and organization of the writing; and (3) the interaction of the reader and

the material, including the extent to which the material stimulates the reader's imagination, fulfils his needs, or arouses his emotions.

The ability to understand what one reads is likewise a complex process. Davis<sup>1</sup> lists the following nine measurable skills in comprehension:

1. Word knowledge
2. Ability to select the appropriate meaning for a word or phrase in the light of its contextual setting
3. Ability to follow the organization of a passage and to identify antecedents and references in it
4. Ability to select the main thought of a passage
5. Ability to answer questions that are explicitly answered in a passage
6. Ability to answer questions that are answered in a passage but not in the words in which the question is asked
7. Ability to draw inferences from a passage about its content
8. Ability to recognize the literary devices used in a passage and to identify its tone or mood
9. Ability to determine the writer's purpose, intent, or point of view

## PROCEDURE IN THE STUDY

Two stories were especially prepared for this study. Two selections were found which, according to re-

<sup>1</sup> Frederick B. Davis, "Comprehension in Reading," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XXVIII (January-February, 1951), 20.

search by Strang<sup>2</sup> and Norvell,<sup>3</sup> varied greatly in interest to adolescents. The first selection consisted of several paragraphs from Nathaniel Hawthorne's *The House of the Seven Gables*,<sup>4</sup> representing the kind of long, wordy description which young people say they dislike. For this study, the selection was given the title "The House on Smith Street." The second, "The Get-away Boy,"<sup>5</sup> was chosen for its action, suspense, clear style, and its teen-age hero. It tells the story of a boy who encounters some gangsters in an abandoned warehouse. After promising to help them escape from the police, he traps them in a tunnel and aids in their arrest. The two selections were rewritten to make them exactly equivalent in readability as measured by three formulas: The Dale-Chall,<sup>6</sup> Lorge,<sup>7</sup> and Flesch<sup>8</sup> formulas. In its final form each story consisted of six

pages of increasing difficulty. Comprehension questions were prepared for each page. Both objective questions and those calling for a freely written response were included. The questions on the two stories were equal in readability, parallel in form, and as nearly equal in conceptual difficulty as possible. An interest-rating scale was provided for each page of each story.

After they had answered the questions based on the text, the pupils were given a separate sheet of paper on which to write comments. They were asked to state which story they thought was more difficult, which story they liked better, and to give their reasons in each case. They were also asked to write an additional chapter for each story. A study of these pupil comments and of the answers to questions calling for freely written responses is the basis for the qualitative analysis which follows.

#### GENERAL FINDINGS

After preliminary tryouts with several groups of pupils, the tests were presented to one hundred typical pupils in a large metropolitan junior high school. Answers to the questions were subjected to extensive statistical analysis. Results showed that, on the whole, the pupils were more interested in "The Get-away Boy" and read that story with a higher degree of comprehension. Thus, with objective factors held equal, superior comprehension was found to be associated with higher interest.

<sup>2</sup> Ruth Strang, "Reading Interests, 1946," *English Journal*, XXXV (November, 1946), 477-82.

<sup>3</sup> George W. Norvell, "Some Results of a Twelve-Year Study of Children's Reading Interests," *English Journal*, XXXV (December, 1946), 531-36.

<sup>4</sup> Nathaniel Hawthorne, *The House of the Seven Gables*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1931.

<sup>5</sup> David Vincent Sheehan, "The Get-away Boy," *Male*, II (January, 1952), 20-21, 68-70.

<sup>6</sup> Edgar Dale and Jeanne S. Chall, "A Formula for Predicting Readability: Instructions," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXVII (February, 1948), 37-54. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University.

<sup>7</sup> Irving Lorge, "Predicting Readability," *Teachers College Record*, XLV (March, 1944), 404-19.

<sup>8</sup> Rudolf Flesch, *How To Test Readability*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1951.

#### RELATION BETWEEN INTEREST AND READING EASE

In reply to the question "Which story did you think was harder?" 80 per cent of the pupils rated "The House on Smith Street" as harder, 11 per cent wrote that "The Get-away Boy" was harder, and 9 per cent stated that the two stories were of equal difficulty. The reasons given indicate that the pupils' ideas of what constitutes difficulty correspond only slightly to the elements included in the readability formulas. Only 4 per cent of the pupils mentioned the idea of vocabulary difficulty. One boy expressed it thus: "It had many hard words and adjectives which required great mental strain to really get the meaning of it." Other reasons given for difficulty included:

It gave such a detail description of the house.

Nothing happened which would tie the details in, to give them some meaning.

It took more time to visualize the scenes in the old house.

Because there were more different subjects and it wasn't about a person.

Too boring to remember what it was about.

It was not very interesting and in my opinion any story that is boring is hard to read.

In other words, the children who read the two stories made little distinction between difficulty and lack of interest.

#### FINDINGS ON THE BETTER- LIKED STORY

In reply to the question, "Which story did you like better?" 85 per cent

of the pupils chose "The Get-away Boy." The reasons given for preferring the mystery story confirmed its selection as a story likely to be of high interest to young adolescents and supported the findings of previous research on adolescent reading interests. The following comments show some of the pupil reactions:

It keeps you guessing until the end.

It had a lot of conflict and it was very moving.

Cute and simple.

It had some alive characters.

Interesting because it was about a boy our age.

It sounded real.

#### REASONS FOR THE CHOICES

The reasons given for disliking the story about the house justified the conclusion that it is a story likely to be uninteresting to teen-agers. Pupils said that it was "too descriptive," "too full of details," and "only about a house and a very dull old man."

A few of the more sophisticated girls in the group, however, enjoyed the description of the house and gave reasons such as the following:

I am more interested in old buildings than boy heroes.

Had more atmosphere.

More beautiful, not common.

It sounds like an interesting old house and I would like to see what it was like in those times.

I like to explore old things. . . . There might be a secret panel.

It would probably look like an enchanted

place with the moon shining bright, offering its radiant light.

These opinions highlight the fact that there are individual differences in reading tastes as well as in other areas. A story which was of high interest to most of the pupils proved uninteresting to a small group, who discovered a romantic quality in the description of the house.

One of the factors which enhanced interest in "The Get-away Boy" was the fact that the hero was a teen-ager with whom the pupils could identify. At the beginning of the story the boy, who thought he was alone in the warehouse, was caught by the gangsters. In reply to the question asking how the boy felt and why, most of the pupils wrote that the boy was frightened. Here are some of the reasons given:

They might kill him.

He probably thought they would kidnap him.

Being alone in a warehouse with gangsters.

Feeling very frightened because of the feeling of someone behind him.

He had told them a lie.

He didn't know what would happen next.

The reasons given range from fear of physical injury to feelings of guilt because he had told a lie. The fears mentioned are perhaps related to the fears of the young people who wrote about them.

#### CHARACTERISTICS OF ENDINGS

##### WRITTEN BY PUPILS

In writing extra chapters for "The Get-away Boy," the pupils showed

that they had identified with the boy in the story by providing for him rewards which may have reflected some of their own needs and desires. Some of the rewards mentioned were as follows:

Everybody was glad to see him and asked him to tell them all about it and he stayed up all night telling them, wouldn't you?

Maybe he had his name in the papers.

His father was very pleased and rewarded him with a new camera.

His father gave him a junior G-man badge.

Most of these rewards reflect the adolescent need for recognition as a person of worth in his family. Other proposed rewards varied from the childish one of ice cream and cake to the rather mature interest in vocational education shown by one girl who wrote that "his father gave him the proper education to become a policeman."

The pupils who enjoyed the description of the house had no characters with whom they could identify. They may have found interest in it by projecting their own needs and desires into the otherwise lifeless situation. Thus, in their extra chapters for this story, several pupils arranged to have the house remodeled so that newlyweds could move in. One girl wrote:

I think it would be rather pleasant to wander through the garden on a lovely clear summer night and just be alone and think, or with someone you can confide in, as I often like to think things out alone or with a close friend in nice peaceful surroundings.

RELATION OF INTEREST TO TYPE  
OF PUPIL RESPONSE

Analysis of the freely written responses to the test questions showed that the pupils tended to give fuller and more detailed responses to questions based on the more interesting story. High interest also appeared to evoke more creative responses.

Responses to the question based on the first page of each story, "Tell in your own words what you have just read," show this clearly. In writing on the first page of "The Get-away Boy," the pupils showed evidence of active thinking. They tried to interpret what they had read and to guess what was coming next. On the other hand, even the best accounts of the first page of the story about the house did no more than reproduce or summarize the material given.

## SUMMARY

In summary, then, high interest was often associated with superior reading comprehension. The pupils tested did not make the distinction between interest and reading ease; for them it was obvious that an uninteresting story is hard to read. Further, when interest was high, the pupils frequently identified with the characters and projected their own life-situations into the story. When interest was high, the pupils responded more fully and more creatively to questions based on the text.

The implications for teachers are self-evident. A program designed to help pupils work in the areas of their needs and interests creates a situation which is conducive to more effective reading.



# STUDENT VIEWPOINTS ABOUT HEALTH, FINANCIAL, VOCATIONAL, AND PERSONALITY PROBLEMS

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THE INVESTIGATION herein reported was undertaken (1) to discover some of the problems of high-school Freshmen, (2) to determine whether the school was helping in the solution of these problems, especially through the curriculum, and (3) to receive suggestions from the students themselves for increasing the amount of aid given by the schools.

A questionnaire was presented to the students in the seven Freshman classes of social science at Clovis Union High School, a large rural high school near Fresno, California. There were 144 girls and 135 boys who participated in the study. Their median chronological age was fourteen years.

The four sections of the questionnaire represented the areas of health, finance, vocations, and personality. The responses to the items in each section have been tabulated separately according to sex of students responding, rank of item in frequency of times chosen, and number and per cent of students choosing the item.

## HEALTH

The items in the areas of health were divided into two groups: (1)

those which presented no health problems or described good health conditions and (2) those which described poor health conditions or presented definite health problems. Both are listed in Table 1.

In general, the responses showed that these Freshmen enjoyed excellent health, except for an occasional illness; slept well; had good appetites; kept their weight normal; and had regular dental care. But many of them worried about their school problems.

The health problems most frequently reported by the students as needing attention were dental defects, nervousness and nail-biting, skin eruptions, impaired vision, speech defects, underweight, constant fatigue, overweight, and impaired hearing.

Between one-fourth and one-third of the Freshmen commended the school for some assistance with their health problems. They admitted some benefit had been derived from the Physical Education Department, from school nurses, or from class discussions about health.

Many excellent suggestions were offered in the survey for improved health service in the schools:

1. Teachers should watch student cleanliness for the health of the pupils.
2. Teachers should see that the students maintain good posture in their seats.
3. The nurse should come more often and for more hours.

9. Students should have a health program in the social-science and the English classes.
10. While the school helps much in health, maybe a health club would help by showing students how to solve our personal health problems.

TABLE 1  
FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES INDICATING GOOD AND POOR HEALTH CONDITIONS  
BY 135 HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS AND 144 HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS

ITEM	Boys			GIRLS		
	Rank of Item	Number	Per Cent	Rank of Item	Number	Per Cent
<i>Good health conditions:</i>						
My appetite is good.....	1	97	71.9	2	92	63.9
I sleep well.....	2	84	62.2	1	96	66.7
I am well.....	3	81	60.0	3	76	52.8
My weight is normal.....	4	79	58.5	5	58	40.3
I am getting dental care.....	5	68	50.4	6	50	34.7
I am rarely ill.....	6	59	43.7	4	71	49.3
I sleep fairly well.....	7	43	31.9	8	43	29.9
My appetite is fairly good.....	8	36	26.7	7	44	30.6
I am getting help from an oculist.....	9	15	11.1	9	21	14.6
<i>Poor health conditions:</i>						
I worry about my school work.....	1	61	45.2	1	79	54.9
I am sometimes ill.....	2	59	43.7	2	71	49.3
I am having trouble with my teeth.....	3	40	29.6	4	45	31.3
I take cold easily.....	4	38	28.0	3	58	40.3
I have skin eruptions (acne).....	5	36	26.7	6	26	18.1
I have a speech difficulty.....	6	34	25.2	10.5	20	13.9
I am underweight.....	7.5	26	19.3	7.5	24	16.7
I bite my nails.....	7.5	26	19.3	5	35	24.3
I am very nervous.....	9.5	20	14.8	14	14	9.7
I feel tired much of the time.....	9.5	20	14.8	10.5	20	13.9
I am overweight.....	11.5	15	11.1	12	19	13.2
I have poor hearing.....	11.5	15	11.1	15	11	7.6
I need help from an oculist.....	13	12	8.9	7.5	24	16.7
I need glasses.....	14	11	8.1	9	21	14.6
I need dental care.....	15	7	5.2	13	16	11.1
I am often ill.....	16.5	1	.7	16	5	3.5
I sleep poorly.....	16.5	1	.7	17.5	3	2.1
My appetite is poor.....	18	.....	.....	17.5	3	2.1

4. There should be regular physical examinations at least twice a week by a doctor or a nurse.

5. The school should provide transportation home if the pupil is ill.

6. Students should be given aid with having teeth fixed.

7. Students should have a health inspection period once a week at noon.

8. Students should have aid with skin conditions.

## FINANCES

The items checked in the area of finance (Table 2) showed that the majority of the students had either partly or entirely solved their financial problems. Half of both the boys and the girls complained they were not paid for working at home. Approximately one-third had not learned how to budg-

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et their money, and one-fifth could not manage to have enough money for school activities. Many wished the school would help them find jobs. They suggested that the school set up an employment service which would match age, ability, and personality of the students with the jobs.

## VOCATIONS

In the area of vocations the items checked were grouped into vocational plans and vocational problems (Table 3). The Freshmen had already given considerable thought to their futures, and only one-fourth of the boys and even fewer girls had no definite plans.

TABLE 2

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES INDICATING FINANCIAL ADJUSTMENTS AND PROBLEMS  
BY 135 HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS AND 144 HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS

ITEM	BOYS			GIRLS		
	Rank of Item	Number	Per Cent	Rank of Item	Number	Per Cent
<i>Financial adjustments:</i>						
I work during the summer . . . . .	1	91	67.4	1	75	52.1
I budget my money . . . . .	2	56	41.5	2	64	44.4
I work part time . . . . .	3	39	28.9	3	30	20.8
I work full time . . . . .	4	13	9.6	4	2	1.4
<i>Financial problems:</i>						
I work at home and am not paid for it . . . . .	1	67	49.6	1	72	50.0
I don't budget my money . . . . .	2	48	35.6	2	36	25.0
I can't find a job—wish school could help . . . . .	3	34	25.2	4	27	18.8
I don't have enough money for school activities . . . . .	4	28	20.7	3	30	20.8

TABLE 3

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES INDICATING VOCATIONAL PLANS AND PROBLEMS  
BY 135 HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS AND 144 HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS

ITEM	BOYS			GIRLS		
	Rank of Item	Number	Per Cent	Rank of Item	Number	Per Cent
<i>Vocational plans:</i>						
I shall go into the armed forces . . . . .	1	46	34.1	4	15	10.4
I have no plans for the future . . . . .	2	35	25.9	3	28	19.4
I won't attend college after high school . . . . .	3.5	33	24.4	2	35	24.3
I have taken aptitude tests . . . . .	3.5	33	24.4	1	59	41.0
<i>Vocational problems:</i>						
I need to learn how to apply for a job . . . . .	1	53	39.3	2	47	32.6
I am undecided about college . . . . .	2	43	31.9	1	59	41.0
I have not taken aptitude tests . . . . .	3	37	27.4	3	39	27.1
I need help in getting a job . . . . .	4	31	23.0	4	26	18.1
I would like to go to college but have no money for it . . . . .	5	21	15.6	5	9	6.3

One-third of the boys expected to join the Armed Forces; one-fourth of both boys and girls knew they would not be going to college; and nearly one-fourth of the boys and one-fifth of the girls desired help in getting jobs.

All the Freshmen had a preference for some vocation. With the boys the most popular were cattle rancher, pilot, carpenter, and businessman. One-fourth of the girls planned to be secretaries. Other popular vocations among girls were bookkeeper, nurse, or housewife. The students made the following suggestions:

1. The teachers should find out the students' plans for the future.
2. The school should give aptitude tests.
3. The school should teach the students how to apply for jobs.
4. The school should help the students get after-school and summer jobs.
5. The school should give information about colleges.

#### PERSONALITY

In Table 4 the items about personality have been divided into descriptive qualities and problems requiring solutions. They are presented according to sex of students responding, rank in frequency of choice, and number and per cent of students indicating each item.

As they saw themselves, the Freshmen at Clovis Union High School were dissatisfied, but their self-criticism was constructive. They wished to have better personalities and were willing to work for this goal. They felt the need of being more cheerful. They recognized such handicaps as shyness, self-consciousness, and a feeling of inferiority. Some could not mingle in a

crowd or carry on a conversation. But the students considered themselves dependable and good sports, and they liked to have fun and friends. On the whole, the girls were more personality-conscious than the boys.

One-fourth of the Freshmen admitted they had received some help from the school, both in a general way and in classes, in solving their personality problems. Many of the others were unhappy about their lack of social graces and their ill-at-ease feeling in a group, which caused them to withdraw into their shells. To them, learning "nice manners" was more important and more desirable than book knowledge.

The following suggestions given by the students for more aid from the school in personality development are expressed in their own words:

1. We should have more dancing and "stuff" to meet more "kids."
2. We need more get-acquainted dances.
3. We used to dance every Thursday night and then this was stopped—then a teen-age club was started Wednesday night so it is OK.
4. We need more activities for a mixed crowd.
5. We need a class in personality development and manners.
6. We need to have a personality club for those who do not have good personalities.
7. We should have more work in the social-science class in personality and how to act in front of others.
8. We need more classes to show fat and slim girls how to look nice.
9. Teachers should help students in other things than just class subjects.
10. Teachers should not favor one pupil over another.
11. Students should not poke fun at others and give them inferiority complexes.

An analysis of these suggestions, which overlapped somewhat, showed that the Freshmen recognized several ways in which Clovis Union High School could be helpful in developing their personalities. They thought the teachers should help students in ways other than teaching subjects. They wanted to have classes in personality development so that they could learn about manners and how to act with others. A personality club seemed to them a good solution. The girls desired to learn how to look attractive. They asked for school dances and activities

for a mixed crowd so that boys and girls could get acquainted. These high-school students seemed to have a good set of values. At an early age they have learned that a good personality is helpful in getting along in the world.

It is felt that through this study of students' viewpoints, the faculty of Clovis Union High, or perhaps the faculty of any high school, can better understand the health, financial, vocational, and personality problems of Freshmen and will be better able to adapt the curriculum to recognizing and solving these problems.

TABLE 4

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES INDICATING PERSONALITY QUALITIES AND PROBLEMS  
BY 135 HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS AND 144 HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS

ITEM	BOYS			GIRLS		
	Rank of Item	Number	Per Cent	Rank of Item	Number	Per Cent
<i>Personality qualities:</i>						
I don't like to laugh at others.....	1	100	74.1	2	114	79.2
I like to have fun.....	2	93	68.9	4	99	68.8
I like to have friends.....	3	90	66.7	3	105	72.9
I don't like to gossip.....	4	86	63.7	1	115	79.9
I have a good personal appearance.....	5	78	57.8	5	87	60.4
I am a good sport.....	6	77	57.0	6	84	58.3
I am dependable.....	7	44	32.6	7	74	51.4
I am self-confident.....	8	37	27.4	9	36	25.0
I like to be in large crowds.....	9	34	25.1	8	60	41.7
I don't have a good personal appearance.....	10	17	12.6	10	12	8.3
I like to gossip about others.....	11.5	14	10.4	11.5	9	6.3
I like to laugh at others.....	11.5	14	10.4	11.5	9	6.3
<i>Personality problems:</i>						
I would like to have a better personality.....	1	85	63.0	1	104	72.2
I feel mixed up sometimes and out of place.....	2	65	48.1	3	72	50.0
I can't carry on a conversation.....	3	49	36.3	6	35	24.3
I would like to overcome self-consciousness.....	4	43	31.9	2	82	56.9
I am too shy.....	5	41	30.4	4	47	32.6
I need to be more cheerful.....	6	36	26.7	5	41	28.5
I get mad easily; need to have self-control.....	7	32	23.7	7	27	18.8
I can't mingle in a crowd well.....	8	27	20.0	8.5	23	16.0
I need to overcome an inferiority complex.....	9	19	14.1	8.5	23	16.0
I am too aggressive.....	10	15	11.1	10	8	5.6
I am too retiring.....	11	9	6.7	11	7	4.9
I argue with everybody; so don't get along.....	12	8	5.9	12	3	2.1

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

### I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

WALTER J. MOORE  
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THE term "instruction" here includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement (or evaluation). The vertical scope of secondary education, as represented in the items of the list, extends through junior high school, senior high school, and junior college.

It is not the purpose of this list of references to furnish a complete bibliography of writings in the fields designated. Accordingly, in areas with especially large numbers of items in the published literature, some good items have been omitted, and the items which have been retained are intended to make the list representative rather than comprehensive.

#### CURRICULUM<sup>1</sup>

1. BRUNER, DONALD WILSON. "Curriculum Change in the Small High School," *Edu-*

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 693 (Tyler) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1953, issue of the *School Review*, and Item 706 (Bond) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1953, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

*cational Leadership*, X (May, 1953), 470-73.

Recounts methods employed by one teacher in effecting curriculum change in a small high school and notes effects upon community-school relations.

2. BURNETT, R. WILL, and BURNETT, BERNICE DAWSON (editors). "Core Program in Action," *Education*, LXXIII (January, 1953), 271-336.

Entire issue devoted to descriptions of core classes in action, written by ten staff members of the Dade County schools in Florida who are concerned with the undertakings as administrators, deans, librarians, and classroom teachers.

3. DURBIN, ROBERT P. "What Should Be Taught in High School?" *California Journal of Educational Research*, IV (March, 1953), 66-68.

Reports a rural high-school study which sought to reveal preferences of both pupils and parents in eleven areas of the curriculum.

4. FREYER, RALPH. "How To Make a Core Program Work," *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems*, pp. 251-63. Thirty-ninth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LIII, No. 2. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1952.



Delineates fundamentals of core programs as developed in New York City high schools, discusses some of the difficulties inherent in the core type of organization, and offers suggestions believed helpful in securing success in core operations.

5. HAUBER, KATHARINE W. "The Experimental Core Program in the High Schools of New York City," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXV (January, 1953), 20-25.

Reviews accomplishments in various high schools in New York City which have experimented over a period of years with the core program by detailing some of the problems encountered and the solutions which were arrived at.

6. JANET, SISTER MARY. "How Fares the High School Curriculum?" *National Catholic Educational Association Bulletin*, XLIX (May, 1953), 7-21.

Reviews causes of discontent with present-day curriculums, recounts efforts to construct "human-centered" curriculums, and weighs recent trends and implications for the high-school curriculum.

7. JARVIS, ELLIS A. "Improving the Curriculum," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (April, 1953), 351-57.

Outlines some of the important problem areas in curriculum and some assumptions basic to curriculum revision at the junior high school level.

8. KELLEY, A. C., and BEATTY, R. E. "Core Program Students Learn Basic Skills," *School Executive*, LXXII (February, 1953), 54-55.

Reports a three-year study at junior high school level which indicates that the basic skills can be adequately taught and measured in a core program.

9. KLOHR, PAUL R. "An Upward Extension of Core," *Educational Leadership*, X (May, 1953), 489-94.

Describes the extension of a core program to include Grades X-XII, considers problems of staffing, and recognizes need for continued experimentation so as to effect improvements.

10. KNEZEVICH, STEPHEN J. "Curriculum and the School Plant," *Educational Leadership*, X (May, 1953), 495-503.

Points out that the school plant is an expression of the educational program, mentions factors influencing schoolroom design, and calls for participation by curriculum workers in school planning.

11. KOFF, DORIS, "The Core and I," *Educational Outlook*, XXVII (March, 1953), 111-15.

Recounts experiences attendant upon transition from a traditional curriculum to a core program.

12. MCNERNEY, CHESTER T. *The Curriculum*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+292.

A textbook which presents an overview of the curriculum, stressing interrelations, methods of curricular organization, and ties binding the child, home, and school.

13. MILLER, IRVING. "A Core-Class Unit," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXV (February, 1953), 13-23.

Presents a "how-to-do-it" detailed description of a core class unit, including such phases as the duration, launching, desired outcomes, integration of knowledge and skills, creative and appreciational activities, and culmination.

14. POND, FREDERICK L. "Curriculum Leadership through New State Department Bulletins in Pennsylvania," *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems*, pp. 1-7. Thirty-ninth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LIII, No. 2. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1952.

Describes the co-operative program of curriculum improvement and emphasizes the

importance of "points of view" which have emerged, as well as methods of implementing the programs being developed.

15. RICE, THEODORE, D. "What Are the Issues in Secondary Education?" *Educational Leadership*, X (May, 1953), 473-76.

Delineates areas of need in curriculum improvement and suggests necessary steps for effecting improvements.

16. RITTER, ED. "The Right Curriculum for the Mid-twentieth Century," *Nation's Schools*, L (November, 1952), 48-50.

Reports a fifteen-year survey of high-school graduates, whose expressed preferences and opinions regarding school offerings have implications for curricular content today.

17. STEPHENSON, HAROLD H. "Imagination in Curriculum Development," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (December, 1952), 497-500.

Lists suggestions designed to improve resource units based on problem-solving because "the new project, or old project in a new setting, must offer new learnings, new meanings, a new challenge for a new class."

18. THOMAS, HARRISON C. "The 'Core' Program in the New York City Academic High Schools," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXV (February, 1953), 5-13.

Describes origins, underlying philosophy, organization, methods, and content of the core program; cites some advantages; and raises some questions regarding areas which should be covered by core classes.

19. TIEDEMAN, DAVID V., and STERNBERG, JACK J., "Information Appropriate for Curriculum Guidance," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXII (Fall, 1952), 257-74.

Shows the inadequacy of regression-analysis techniques in studying the problems of curriculum guidance, and indicates the possibilities inherent in the use of discriminant analysis employed to determine group differences with respect to various abilities.

20. *We Look at Curriculum Growth in New Jersey's High Schools*. 1952 Yearbook. Plainfield, New Jersey: New Jersey Secondary School Teachers Association (L. D. Beers, Treasurer, 1035 Kenyon Avenue), 1952. Pp. 96.

Presents helpful reports of curriculum improvement which have been planned, undertaken, and evaluated for their effectiveness in meeting the particular needs of specific high schools or high-school groups in New Jersey.

21. WRIGHT, GRACE S. *Core Curriculum Development: Problems and Practices*. Office of Education Bulletin 1952, No. 5. Pp. vi+104.

Reports the status and practices found in core and core-type programs; enumerates problems encountered in their operation or further enrichment; and shows how some high schools are undertaking solution of major problems.

22. WRIGHT, GRACE S. "Core Curriculum: Why and What?" *School Life*, XXXIV (February, 1952), 71, 75-76.

Reports a study of the extent to which 519 secondary schools use four core-type or core programs, notes frequency of change from one type to another, and lists some of the obstacles to core development.

#### METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION

23. BIRKMAIER, EMMA MARIE (editor). *Illustrative Learning Experiences*. The Modern School Practices Series, No. 2. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1952. Pp. viii+108.

Presents twelve typical units planned by teacher and pupils in such areas as literature, social studies, mathematics, and languages.

24. BOARDMAN, CHARLES W.; DOUGLASS, HARL R.; and BENT, RUDYARD K. *Democratic Supervision in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953. Pp. xiv+558.

- Deals with the nature and organization of supervision, techniques for improving instruction, types of supervisory services, and evaluation of the supervisory program.
25. BOND, JESSE A. "Analysis of Factors Adversely Affecting Scholarship of High School Pupils," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (September, 1952), 1-15.  
Reports reactions of high-school students to thirty-nine factors which might impair scholarship and draws inferences for closing the gap between potential and actual scholastic achievement.
26. DRIGGS, DON F. "Homework as an Instructional Tool," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1953), 144-48.  
Summarizes the views of proponents and opponents of the practice of home study and offers lists of suggested activities recommended in lieu of homework.
27. DUNMIRE, BURT. "Preparing for the Substitute Teacher," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (February, 1953), 45-48.  
Presents forms described as useful and time-saving for the principal and for both absent and substitute teacher.
28. ELICKER, PAUL E. "Should We Accelerate High School Youth?" *NEA Journal*, XLII (February, 1953), 80-81.  
Presents the case against premature departure of high-school pupils for participation in speeded-up programs at the college level.
29. GACH, JOHN J. "A Class Visitation Time-Schedule as a Supervisory Aid," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (February, 1953), 60-68.  
Describes a systematically organized time schedule for supervisory visiting, which proved helpful in providing groundwork for more effective help for beginning and experienced teachers.
30. GORMAN, BURTON W. "The High School Schedule," *American School Board Journal*, CXXVI (March, 1953), 49-51.  
Deplores the "hit-and-run" plan of organizing the secondary-school schedule as inadequate to meet the needs of modern education and cites six advantages believed to inhere in more realistic scheduling.
31. HERDMAN, DONALD. "Subject Matter: Its Organization for Use," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (May, 1953), 226-31.  
Offers six suggestions for dealing adequately with subject matter in the high-school curriculum.
32. HOROWITZ, I. LEWIS. "Meeting the Drop-out Challenge," *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems*, pp. 263-72. Thirty-ninth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LIII, No. 2. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1952.  
Identifies potential drop-outs, cites reasons for school-leaving, and describes curriculum adaptations designed to improve the school's holding power for students who are either unable or unwilling to profit from conventional high-school studies.
33. "How Can Supervision Make Its Greatest Contribution to the Learning Process? [Summary of issue presented by Paul Boatwright and Walker Brown]," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (April, 1953), 209-14.  
Advances suggestions applicable to the supervision of school personnel through classroom visitation, observation, and follow-up techniques.
34. HOWELL, WALLACE J. "Work-Study Skills of Adolescents in Grades VII-XIV," *School Review*, LXI (May, 1953), 277-82.  
Reviews relevant research findings, traces developmental trends, and offers suggestions for school personnel interested in

retention and further development of work-study skills.

35. JOHNSON, LOAZ W. "Competitions, Contests, Awards, Prizes, Special Privileges," *Clearing House*, XXVII (November, 1952), 131-33.

Raises questions regarding the logic and fairness involved in current practices involving competitions, contests, awards, prizes, and special privileges.

36. KING, DOUGLASS. "Adolescents and Work Experience in the Community," *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems*, pp. 242-51. Thirty-ninth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LIII, No. 2. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1952.

Describes efforts to institute a work-experience program and calls for an awareness of pitfalls likely to be encountered unless proper attitudes and concepts are developed by sponsors as well as participants.

37. LANE, DAVID J. "What's Wrong with Teacher-Supervisor Relations," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXV (February, 1953), 29-35.

Reviews strains and stresses between teachers and supervisors, with particular reference to the classroom visit and post-visit conference and written report, and concludes with suggested procedures for improvement of teacher-supervisor relations.

38. LARSON, ROLF W. "Teachers Evaluate Their Classroom Work," *Teacher Education Quarterly*, IX (Spring, 1952), 107-16.

Recounts efforts of a teacher group to find out the degree to which they, in their teaching, were reaching their students and accomplishing their objectives.

39. LINDGREN, HENRY CLAY. "The Effect of the Group on the Behavior of the Individual," *Education*, LXXIII (February, 1953), 383-87.

Believes that "solutions to problems involving groups would seem to lie in the direction of accepting the facts that individuals will be affected by groups, that this influence will be emotional in character, and that a change in behavior of individuals will result."

40. MELCHIOR, WILLIAM T. "Modern Concepts of Supervision in Secondary Education," *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems*, pp. 272-77. Thirty-ninth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. LIII, No. 2. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1952.

Envisions curriculum revision as a facet of a supervisory program, which is facilitated by clear understanding of the concepts guiding supervisors in forwarding the purposes and content of secondary-school education.

41. MELTON, J. R. "Using Textbooks Wisely," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1953), 138-44.

Cites need for a body of principles to furnish a conceptual foundation for the wise use of textbooks and offers guide lines which have possibilities for adaptation over a wide range of teaching situations.

42. MOORER, SAM H. "Supervision: The Keystone to Educational Progress." Tallahassee, Florida: State Department of Education, 1953. Pp. 32 (processed).

A status study of supervisory practices in Florida which recounts accomplishments under the program and delineates problems faced in planning for continuous improvement of instructional areas.

43. MUSSELMAN, VERNON A., and OTHERS. *Improving the High School Program through Unit Teaching*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XXIV, No. 4. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1952. Pp. 80.

Considers possibilities inherent in the unit method for improvement of instruction.

44. PREWETT, CLINTON R. "The Assignment as a Technique of Individualizing Instruction," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (February, 1953), 129-33.

Discusses the place of the assignment in the teaching-learning situation and suggests three techniques for individualization of the assignment.

45. RIOS, JOHN F. "The Evaluation of Methods in the Junior College," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (November, 1952), 408-11.

Suggests seven criteria for determining the appropriateness of a method deemed suitable for the junior-college teaching level.

46. WHITEHEAD, MATTHEW J. "Teachers Look at Supervision," *Educational Leadership*, X (November, 1952), 101-6.

Reflects attitudes of high-school teachers toward six commonly used devices for improving the instructional program.

47. *Youth—The Nation's Richest Resource: Their Education and Employment Needs.* A Report Prepared by the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth of the Federal Government, 1951. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1953. Pp. x+54.

Presents a report covering the needs of young people at school, at work, or entering the working world, prepared by a committee representing the government agencies which Congress has made responsible for contributing to the welfare of children and youth.

#### MEASUREMENT<sup>2</sup>

48. BEARD, RICHARD L. "Techniques the Teacher May Use in Constructing Tests," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (January, 1953), 101-6.

<sup>2</sup> See also Item 647 (Traxler) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1953, issue of the *School Review*, and Item 780 (Keislar) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1953, issue of the same journal.

Advances aims basic to evaluation and recommends techniques within reach of all high-school teachers.

49. BROWN, CARL F. "The Use of Tests in the High School," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (January, 1953), 97-100.

Maintains that a good testing program assists in evaluating the instructional program, in planning curriculum improvement, and in knowing more about children's needs.

50. COPE, QUILL E. "After Evaluation—How Much Improvement?" *Clearing House*, XXVII (April, 1953), 451-53.

Reports a follow-up study of teacher-discerned improvements that resulted from use of the Evaluative Criteria in fifteen high schools.

51. CROW, LESTER D. "Achievement Tests and the New Education," *Educational Forum*, XVII (March, 1953), 319-23.

Considers functions served by available achievement tests and calls for focusing of attention upon measurement of values formerly thought incidental in education.

52. DETCHEN, LILY. "Instructional Values Associated with the Use of Questionnaires," *School Review*, LX (November, 1952), 481-86.

Demonstrates uses, other than evaluation, to which properly constructed questionnaires may be put advantageously.

53. GOUGH, HARRISON G. "What Determines the Academic Achievement of High School Students," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLVI (January, 1953), 321-31.

Presents a study which sought to forecast scholastic achievement through use of a scale designed to suggest tendencies characteristic of the more successful high-school students.

54. "How Best Can We Utilize the Results of a Testing Program? [Summary of issue presented by F. T. Dobbs and Francis L. Bacon]," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School*



*Principals*, XXXVII (April, 1953), 276-81.

Advances plea for testing programs yielding information which will be used by teachers to improve educational programs through consideration of methods of implementation of test results.

55. KIMBALL, BARBARA. "The Sentence-Completion Technique in a Study of Scholastic Underachievement," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, XVI (October, 1952), 353-58.

Examines certain personality characteristics of adolescents for effects of parent-child relations and aggressive manifestations upon scholastic underachievement of adolescents.

56. KOSTICK, MAX M., and NIXON, BELLE M. "How To Improve Oral Questioning," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XXX (January, 1953), 209-17.

Examines the role of oral questions as an evaluating device by listing eight potential advantages and by considering thirteen methods of increasing the skill of teachers in the use of oral examinations.

57. KVARACEUS, W. C. "The Changing Report Card," *Educational Trend*, No. 952. New London, Connecticut: Croft Publications, 1952. Pp. 4.

Reports current practices of reporting pupil growth to the home which are outgrowths of, and in harmony with, principles of mental hygiene, findings in the field of child growth and development, the enlarged scope of the aims of the school in dealing with the "total personality," and more reliable and valid appraisal and measurement procedures.

58. ODELL, C. W. "The Earmarks of Good Marking Systems," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (April, 1953), 197-202.

Suggests features of marking systems meriting emphasis when problems of reporting are studied at the high-school level.

59. PARKER, DON H. "Planning a Program of Standardized Testing," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (January, 1953), 107-12.

Lists steps vital to a successful program of standardized testing which will eventuate in wider prevalence of "teaching with a purpose."

60. SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. "Pupil Evaluation and Self-evaluation," *Teachers College Record*, LIV (December, 1952), 138-49.

Presents evidence to show that personal evaluations by the teacher and self-evaluation by pupils are colored by intrusion of personal-needs factors which distort and destroy the objective significance of evaluative judgments.

61. "A Symposium on Evaluation in Modern Secondary Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVIII (February, 1953), 62-102.

Entire issue devoted to series of articles stressing various phases of evaluation in the secondary schools of today.

62. WHITE, M. JUDSON. "New Procedures in Marking and Reporting," *High School Journal*, XXXVI (April, 1953), 202-7.

Considers marking and reporting under two categories: (1) those procedures based on new points of view as to how evaluation should be carried on in the schools and (2) new procedures designed to improve present systems of marking and reporting.

63. WOOD, HUGH B. "Testing Used as Part of the Learning Process," *Clearing House*, XXVII (April, 1953), 454-56.

Provides examples of how evaluation instruments and techniques can be made and integral part of the curriculum.



## EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

KENNETH L. BEAN, *Construction of Educational and Personnel Tests*: New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. viii+232. \$4.50.

At present, a great variety of tests of intelligence, aptitude, achievement, interest, attitude, and personality can be obtained from reputable publishers of standardized tests, and a number of references are available which will help schools select these tests more effectively. Bean's book, *Construction of Educational and Personnel Tests*, was designed to provide assistance to persons actually engaged in the construction of aptitude and achievement tests.

In his Preface the author refers to two groups outside the academic fields who are in need of a working knowledge of test construction, namely, examiners in civil service agencies and research workers engaged in constructing tests for the selection of personnel. The major emphasis in the textbook appears to be on construction of personnel tests utilizing a job-analysis approach. To this reviewer the book therefore appears to have limited value for constructors of tests to measure elementary-school, high-school, and college achievement.

In chapter i the author defines the concepts used in his book and briefly discusses common uses and abuses of tests, criticisms of examination techniques, goals and objectives, and classification of tests.

Planning the test as a whole is covered in chapter ii. In defining the purpose of the test, the author points out that "goals [of a course] go far beyond the mere memorization of facts into the application of knowledge or skill and the comprehension of many rela-

tionships among the ideas presented" (p. 17) and, furthermore, that "basic to all personnel selection by a scientific method is sound job classification. Upon a solid foundation of job analysis, testing can have a definite purpose" (p. 18). Problems of test administration, scoring, weighting scores on composite tests, and the making of a tentative outline of a proposed test are also discussed.

"Converting Material into Objective-Test Items" (chapter iii) and "Special Problems in Objective-Test Construction" (chapter iv) list various types of items that might be used in construction of tests. The author provides illustrations of common pitfalls in converting materials into objective-test items and of ways in which the pitfalls may be avoided.

Chapters v and vi deal with essay and performance tests and cover briefly such problems as validity of the tests and objectivity of scoring.

Chapter vii presents a review and a tryout of a proposed test, and chapter viii a discussion of validity, reliability, and standardization. The latter chapter gives no statistical analysis in the text and refers to standard textbooks for statistical formulas to be used and procedures to be followed.

The sample problem in test construction and solution, an example of comparative answers, and an example of performance and scoring are included in the appendixes. Unfortunately, the sample problem in test construction was not carried to the point where a report on the reliability and validity could be supplied.

Though the author mentions that he

hopes the reader will make use of the references cited in his book to obtain a more comprehensive picture of the problems encountered in test construction, some recent publications covering this area have been omitted. One such reference is *Educational Measurement* (American Council on Education, 1951), which deals comprehensively with various aspects of test construction.

Bean's book is written in a manner which should appeal to any person who would like a general review of some of the problems in test construction. The complete absence of statistical formulas or statistical analysis will certainly make it acceptable to students with little training in statistics. Whether the book should be recommended as a textbook in an elementary course in test construction will depend on the nature of the course. Many students and teachers will find this book a useful reference, particularly in its treatment of writing test items.

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NATHAN S. WASHTON (general editor), *Man and His World Series: Your Blood and You* by SARAH R. RIEDMAN, 1952, pp. 130; *The Way of Science: Its Growth and Method* by JOHN SOMERVILLE, 1953, pp. 172; *The Moon* by GEORGE GAMOW, 1953, pp. 118; and *Life on the Earth* by ROSE WYLER and GERALD AMES, 1953, pp. 144. New York: Henry Schuman, Inc. \$2.50 each.

Written by authors with very different viewpoints, for readers who differ in maturity and background, these four science-related books can be called a series only by courtesy. Advertised as "units for junior and senior high school," they differ greatly in suitability for use in these grades.

*Your Blood and You* is written in a style which appeals to most high-school students,

and its content will supplement and enrich the usual biology textbook. Problems regarding blood transfusions faced by doctors a century ago pose the motivating framework for introducing much basic information concerning life-processes. One chapter significantly sketches the story of evolution from bloodless, ocean-living protozoa to warm-blooded mammals with their constant internal body temperature.

The author has skilfully interwoven information about the composition and functioning of the blood with accounts of discoveries about blood and of simple experiments and techniques for finding information about blood. The reader will learn of the different colors of animal blood, of blood counts, of the various kinds of white corpuscles and their functions, and why blood clots and how speed of clotting is controlled. Information about blood types brings the reader back to the idea of transfusions, which are now so safe in contrast with their hazardousness a century ago.

The final chapter takes a look at the long struggle to eliminate human ignorance and superstition. Then, after pointing out the great benefits already achieved from scientific study, closes with, "There is always more to be learned. . . . We shall make people still healthier as we find out still more about our blood, ourselves, and our world" (p. 125).

*The Way of Science* gives an overview of the development of science and thereby gives some explanation of the methods of science. The author is a psychologist and philosopher who has a keen interest in science and would like to see the methods of science applied to the area of social science as well.

Calling science an "Aladdin's lamp," he points out that science not only has revolutionized our living but has actually made life possible for many of us who, except for modern science, would have died in infancy. In tracing the slow development of a scientific civilization, he points out that "people came

only gradually to realize that there are laws of nature" (p. 47). In describing the Copernican revolution in astronomy, he is more interested in why and how the new theory was achieved than he is in the theory itself. The typical steps of problem-solving are illustrated from the work of Newton, Pasteur, Archimedes, and Copernicus. There is no suggestion that scientists ever use any other procedures.

Some readers will be disturbed by the errors on pages 69 and 88. The combined gravitational pulls of the other planets on the earth will not counterbalance the gravitational pull of the sun as is suggested. Apparently the author lacks the thorough grounding in the basic sciences needed to write authoritatively about them or to make accurate predictions of the probable future of scientific development, as he attempts to do in the final chapter. He is entirely correct in pointing out that progress in physical science since the time of Aristotle far exceeds that in social science.

This book will be enjoyed by teachers of science, history, and social science more than by high-school science students, although students may profitably be directed to some parts.

*The Moon* gives accurate, fairly detailed, but simple explanations of the phases of the moon, synodic and sidereal months, eclipses, the law of universal gravitation, tides, parallax displacement, and the conditions on the moon. The reader feels assured that the author is an authority who knows much more about this subject than he has included in this little book.

One chapter introduces mathematical evidence of the slowing down of the earth enough to lose fourteen seconds in one hundred years, and from this type of evidence the conclusion is reached that "three or four billion years ago, the moon and earth were very close neighbors indeed, and could well have been parts of a single celestial body" (p. 64).

In a final chapter the author refers to cer-

tain fictional "moon trips," pointing out scientific fallacies in the proposals. He then discusses some of the scientific problems involved in sending a rocket to the moon. He is careful to speculate about, not predict, such trips. He undoubtedly has the capacity for writing excellent science fiction.

The little astronomy taught in American secondary schools is usually taught in junior high school grades. But *The Moon* is not the best possible resource treatment of our satellite for these students. A professor of theoretical physics finds it difficult to choose concepts or approaches simple enough for junior high school students. This book will be more valuable for teachers of general science than for their immature students. Personally, I enjoyed the touches of humor along with the authoritative treatment of the serious content.

*Life on the Earth* attempts to answer such questions as, "How did life begin?" "How have new species evolved?" "How has man come to be supreme among the animals?"

Numerous examples are given of adaptation of living things to their environment. Evidence presented suggests that life began in the "broth of the seas." The advantage of smallness is stressed in discussing one-celled animals, and the adjustments made by multicellular animals are pointed out.

The story of the evolution of the horse is well told as an example of the development of various species. The accounts of the successive stages of sea life, amphibians, reptiles, birds, mammals, and, finally, the primates and man stress survival because of fitness for the new environment.

Attempts made to discuss the chemistry of protoplasm and the general life-processes lack clarity and definiteness; vague chemical explanations are not too helpful for those who have no background of chemical understanding. The introduction of theories concerning the origin of the solar system seems irrelevant.

*Life on the Earth* will have some appeal to high-school students of biology and to biol-

ogy teachers. It presents some material not found in the regular biology textbooks, but it lacks the completeness and the authenticity of most texts.

Each of the four books of this series will be worth while and interesting reading for the adult reader who seeks a popular, but not too scholarly, treatment of the subject.

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DORA S. LEWIS, JEAN O. BURNS, and  
ESTHER F. SEGNER, *Housing and Home  
Management*. New York 11: Macmillan  
Co., 1953. Pp. x+312. \$3.20.

This book is designed as a textbook for secondary-school students in homemaking. It has a "family-centered" approach that is realistic, practical, and interesting. It gives instruction on selecting a home, whether it be the newly married couple selecting a one-room rented apartment, a family with children choosing between a rented apartment and a house, or the couple planning with the architect the building of their permanent home. Also included are suggestions for furnishing a home and selecting equipment, with attention to cost, construction, design, and color. Home management and maintenance and standards, work plans, techniques,

and methods of evaluation are well presented.

The authors have designed this textbook to help students solve problems as they meet them in their daily living. To emphasize choice in terms of family values, case studies of actual family problems are included. These bring out financial limitations, community considerations, and factors to be weighed in terms of individual and family needs. Consideration is given to legal and financial safeguards.

One of the best features of the book is the inclusion of many practical "how to do it" suggestions for painting, papering, doing simple repair jobs, and making furniture. Doing things in the home for themselves is a trend among young homemakers which it is well to recognize and encourage.

All sections of the book contain well-chosen illustrations that effectively point up the text material. At the end of each chapter are suggestions for individual and class activities. These could well have been expanded, though the suggestions as given are good.

This is a very welcome book in an area of homemaking which needs much more attention than it often receives.

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## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

ALBERTY, HAROLD. *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1953 (revised). Pp. xii+560. \$5.25.

BESTOR, ARTHUR E. *Educational Wastelands: The Retreat from Learning in Our Public Schools*. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1953. Pp. 226. \$3.50.

CANTOR, NATHANIEL. *The Teaching-learning Process*. Introduction by STEPHEN M.

COREY. New York 19: Dryden Press, 1953. Pp. xvi+350. \$2.90.

*Corrective Reading in Classroom and Clinic.* Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago, 1953, Vol. XV. Compiled and edited by HELEN M. ROBINSON. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 79. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. viii+258. \$3.50.

DIMOND, STANLEY E. *Schools and the Development of Good Citizens.* The Final Report of the Citizenship Education Study, Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University. Detroit 1, Michigan: Wayne University Press, 1953. Pp. xiv+216. \$3.50.

GILBERT, LUTHER C. *Functional Motor Efficiency of the Eyes and Its Relation to Reading.* University of California Publications in Education, Vol. XI, No. 3. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1953. Pp. 159-232. \$1.00.

HUTCHINS, ROBERT M. *The University of Utopia.* Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+104. \$2.50.

*The Modern Community School.* Edited by EDWARD G. OLSEN. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+246. \$2.50.

MORTON, ROBERT LEE. *Teaching Children Arithmetic: Primary, Intermediate, Upper Grades.* New York 3: Silver Burdett Co., 1953. Pp. xviii+566. \$4.50.

NOAR, GERTRUDE. *The Junior High School—Today and Tomorrow.* New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. x+374.

*Problems and Practices in New York City Schools.* 1953 Yearbook, New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education. Brooklyn 10: New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education (IRVIN S. HECHT, treasurer, 2500 Nostrand Avenue), 1953. Pp. x+156.

#### BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BRYANT, MARGARET M.; HOWE, M. L.; JENKINS, PHILIP R.; and MUNN, HELEN T., *Teacher's Manual for "English at Work,"* Course Three, pp. vi+58; Course Four, pp. vi+52; HOWE, M. L.; JENKINS, PHILIP R.; and MUNN, HELEN T., *Workbook To Supplement "English at Work,"* Course Four, pp. 124, \$0.96. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1953.

CLARK, JOHN R., and OTHERS. *Growth in Arithmetic. Arithmetic Workbook: Grade 3* by JOHN R. CLARK, CHARLOTTE W. JUNG, and CAROLINE HATTON CLARK; *Grade 4* by JOHN R. CLARK, CHARLOTTE W. JUNG, and CAROLINE HATTON CLARK; *Grade 5* by JOHN R. CLARK, ROLLAND R. SMITH, and CAROLINE HATTON CLARK, with the co-operation of CHARLOTTE W. JUNG; *Grade 6* by JOHN R. CLARK, ROLLAND R. SMITH, and CAROLINE HATTON CLARK, with the co-operation of CHARLOTTE W. JUNG; *Grade 7* by JOHN R. CLARK, ROLLAND R. SMITH, and FRANCIS G. LANKFORD, JR.; *Grade 8* by JOHN R. CLARK, ROLLAND R. SMITH, and FRANCIS G. LANKFORD, JR. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1953. Pp. 144 each.

CROMWELL, R. FLOYD; HATCH, RAYMOND N.; and PARMENTER, MORGAN D. *Occupations Course: Unit No. 2, Exploring Occupations.* Buffalo 1, New York: Guidance Publishing Co., 1953 (revised). Pp. 56. \$0.66.

*Favorite Modern Plays.* Selected and edited by FELIX SPER. New York 10: Globe Book Co., 1953. Pp. xii+530. \$3.00.

FISHER, AILEEN. *Health and Safety Plays and Programs.* Boston 16: Plays, Inc., 1953. Pp. viii+268. \$3.50.

GERKEN, C. D'A. *Study Your Way through School.* Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. Pp. 48. \$0.40.



KANTOR, MACKINLAY. *The Voice of Bugle Ann.* A School Edition by FREDERICK HOUK LAW. New York 10: Globe Book Co., 1953. Pp. x+116. \$1.80.

KIPLING, RUDYARD. "Captains Courageous." Edited by FREDERICK HOUK LAW. New York 10: Globe Book Co., 1953. Pp. x+236. \$1.84.

LAIRD, CHARLTON. *The Miracle of Language.* Cleveland 2: World Publishing Co., 1953. Pp. xii+308. \$4.00.

LAW, FREDERICK HOUK. *Great Americans.* New York 10: Globe Book Co., 1953. Pp. vi+570. \$3.00.

LEONHARD, CHARLES. *A Song Approach to Music Reading.* New York 3: Silver Burdett Co., 1953. Pp. x+150.

O. Henry's *Best Stories.* Edited by LOU P. BUNCE. New York 10: Globe Book Co., 1953. Pp. 298. \$2.40.

WALLIS, LOUIS. *Young People's Hebrew History.* New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1953. Pp. x+118. \$2.50.

#### PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

ANDERSSON, THEODORE. *The Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Elementary School.* Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1953 (preliminary edition). Pp. vi+120. \$1.25.

ARMED FORCES INFORMATION AND EDUCATION OFFICE, DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE. *Armed Forces Talk*; No. 452, *Save Yourself Some Money*, pp. 14, \$0.05; No. 455, *Is the United States Self-Sufficient?* pp. 16, \$0.05; No. 456, *The Strategic Baltic Area*, pp. 16, \$0.05. Washington 25: Government Printing Office, 1953.

*Blueprint for Delinquency Prevention.* Albany 7, New York: New York State Youth Commission (66 Beaver Street), 1953. Pp. 30.

BOYS' CLUBS OF AMERICA. *Summary, Junior Book Awards Reading Program, September, 1952—April, 1953.* New York 16: Boys' Clubs of America. Pp. 91.

CHURCH, HAROLD H.; SEAGERS, PAUL W.; BARR, W. MONFORT; FOX, WILLIAM H.; and STAPLEY, MAURICE E. *The Local School Facilities Survey.* Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXIX, Nos. 1 and 2. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1953. Pp. viii+96. \$2.00.

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